1775

ELEMENTS

OF

GENERAL HISTORY.

VOL. II.

THE TANJORE MAHARAJA SERFOGI'S SARASWATI MAHAL.

Serfogi Rajah 1820

ELEMENTS

OF

GENERAL HISTORY,

ANCIENT AND MODERN.

THE TANJORE MAHARAJA SERFOGI'S SARASWATI MAHAL.

TO WHICH ARE ADDED

A TABLE OF CHRONOLOGY,

AND

A COMPARATIVE VIEW OF ANCIENT AND MODERN GEOGRAPHY.

ILLUSTRATED BY MAPS.

THE SEVENTH EDITION, CORRECTED AND IMPROVED.

IN TWO VOLUMES.

VOL. II.

LONDON:

PRINTED FOR T. CADELL, AND W. DAVIES, STRAND;

AND A. CONSTABLE AND CO. AND J. FAIRBAIRN, EDINBURGH.

1818.

1775

Published Jan. 1st 1812, by Cadell & Davies Strand.

T. E. TANJORE MAHARAJA SERFOGI'S S... MAHAL.

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MODERN HISTORY.

TANJORE MAHARAJA SERFOGI'S SARASWATI MAHAL

PART SECOND.

I.

OF ARABIA, AND THE EMPIRE OF THE SARACENS.

1. The fall of the Western empire of the Romans, and the final subjugation of Italy by the Lombards, is the aera from which we date the commencement of modern history.

The Eastern empire of the Romans continued to exist for many ages after this period, still magnificent, though in a state of comparative weakness and degeneracy. Towards the end of the sixth century, a new dominion arose in the East, which was destined to produce a wonderful change on a great portion of the globe.

The Arabians, at this time a rude nation, living chiefly in independent tribes, who traced their descent from the Patriarch Abraham, professed a mixed religion compounded of Judaism and Idolatry. Mecca, their holy city, arose to eminence from the donations of pilgrims to its temple, in which was reposited a black stone, an object of high veneration. Mahomet was born at Mecca, A. D. 571. Of mean descent, and no education, but of great natural talents, he sought to raise himself to celebrity, by feigning a divine mission to propagate a new religion for the salvation of mankind. He retired to the desert, and pretended to hold conferences with the Angel Gabriel, who delivered to him from time to time portions of a sacred book or *Coran*, containing revelations of the will of the Supreme Being, and of the doctrines which he required his Prophet to communicate to the world.

2. This religion, while it adopted in part the morality of Christianity, retained many of the rites of Judaism, and some of the Arabian superstitions, as the pilgrimage to Mecca; but owed to a certain spirit of Asiatic voluptuousness its chief recommendation to its votaries.

The Coran taught the belief of one God, whose will and power were constantly exerted towards the happiness of his creatures; that the duty of man was to love his neighbours, assist the poor, protect the injured, to be humane to inferior animals, and to pray seven times a-day. The pious mussulman was allowed to have four wives, and as many concubines as he chose; and the pleasures of love were promised as the supreme joys of paradise. To revive the impression of these laws, which God had engraven originally in the hearts of men, he had sent from time to time his prophets upon earth, Abraham, Moses, Jesus Christ, and Mahomet; the last the greatest, to whom all the world should owe its conversion to the true religion. By producing the Coran in detached parcels, Mahomet had it in his power to solve all objections by new revelations.

3. Dissensions and popular tumults between the believers and infidels caused the banishment of Mahomet from Mecca. His flight, called the *Hegyra*, (A. D. 622,) is the aera of his glory. He betook himself to Medina, was joined by the brave Omar, and, propagating

his doctrines with great success, marched with his followers in arms, and took the city of Mecca. In a few years he subdued all Arabia; and then attacking Syria, won several of the Roman cities. In the midst of his victories he died at the age of sixty-one, A.D. 632. He had nominated Ali his son-in-law his successor, but Abubeker his father-in-law secured the succession, by gaining the army to his interest.

4. Abubeker united and published the books of the Coran, and prosecuted the conquests of Mahomet. He defeated the army of Heraclius, took Jerusalem, and subjected all between Mount Libanus and the Mediterranean. On his death, Omar was elected to the Caliphate, and in one campaign deprived the Greek empire of Syria, Phoenicia, Mesopotamia, and Chaldaea. In the next, he subdued to the Mussulman dominion and religion the whole empire of Persia. His generals at the same time conquered Egypt, Lybia, and Numidia.

5. Otman, the successor of Omar, added to the dominion of the Caliphs Bactriana, and part of Tartary, and ravaged Rhodes and

the Greek islands. His successor was Ali, the son-in-law of Mahomet, a name to this day revered by the Mahometans. He transferred the seat of the Caliphat from Mecca to Couffa, whence it was afterwards removed to Bagdat. His reign was glorious, but only of five years duration. In the space of half a century from the beginning of the conquests of Mahomet, the Saracens raised an empire more extensive than what remained of the Roman. Nineteen Caliphs of the race of Omar (*Ommiades*) reigned in succession, after which began the dynasty of the *Abassidae*, descended by the male line from Mahomet. Almanzor, second Caliph of this race, removed the seat of empire to Bagdat, and introduced learning and the culture of the sciences, which his successors continued to promote with equal zeal and liberality, Haroun Alraschid, who flourished in the beginning of the ninth century, is celebrated as a second Augustus. The sciences chiefly cultivated by the Arabians were, Medicine, Geometry, and Astronomy. They improved the Oriental Poetry, by adding regularity to its fancy and luxuriancy of imagery.

II.

MONARCHY OF THE FRANKS.

1. The Franks were originally those tribes of Germans who inhabited the districts lying on the Lower Rhine and Weser, and who, in the time of Tacitus, passed under the names of Chauci, Cherusci, Catti, Sicambri, &c. They assumed or received the appellation of *Franks*, or freemen, from their temporary union to resist the dominion of the Romans. Legendary chronicles record a Pharamond and a Meroveus; the latter the head of the first race of the kings of France termed the Merovingian; but the authentic history of the Franks commences only with his grandson Clovis, who began to reign in the year 481. While only in the twentieth year of his age, Clovis achieved the conquest of Gaul, by the defeat of Syagrius the Roman Governor; and marrying Clotilda, daughter of Chilperic King of Burgundy, soon added that province to his dominions, by dethroning his father-

in-law. He was converted by Clotilda; and the Franks, till then idolaters, became Christians, after their Sovereign's example. The Visigoths, professing Arianism, were masters at this time of Aquitaine, the country between the Rhone and Loire. The intemperate zeal of Clovis prompted the extirpation of these heretics, who retreated across the Pyrennees into Spain, and the province of Aquitaine became part of the kingdom of the Franks. They did not long retain it; for Theodoric the Great, defeating Clovis in the battle of Arles, added Aquitaine to his own dominions. Clovis died A.D. 511.

2. His four sons divided the monarchy, and were perpetually at war with each other. A series of weak and wicked princes succeeded, and Gaul for some ages was characterised under its Frank Sovereigns by more than ancient barbarism. On the death of Dagobert II. (A.D. 715.) who left two infant sons, the government, during their minority, fell into the hands of their chief officers, termed Mayors of the Palace; and these ambitious men founded a new power, which for some gene-

rations held the Frank Sovereigns in absolute subjection, and left them little more than the title of King. Austrasia and Neustria, the two great divisions of the Frank monarchy, were nominally governed by Thierry, but in reality by Pepin Heristel, Mayor of the Palace, who, restricting his Sovereign to a small domain, ruled France for thirty years with great wisdom and good policy. His son, Charles Martel, succeeded to his power, and under a similar title governed for twenty-six years with equal ability and success. He was victorious over all his domestic foes, his arms kept in awe the surrounding nations, and he delivered France from the ravages of the Saracens, whom he entirely defeated, between Tours and Poictiers, A.D. 732.

3. Charles Martel bequeathed the government of France, as an undisputed inheritance, to his two sons, Pepin le Bref, and Carloman, who governed under the same title of Mayor, the one Austrasia, and the other Neustria and Burgundy. On the resignation of Carloman, Pepin succeeded to the sole administration; and, ambitious of adding the title of King to the power which he already enjoyed, proposed

the question to Pope Zachary, whether he or his Sovereign Childeric was most worthy of the throne? Zachary, who had his own interest in view, decided that Pepin had a right to add the title of King to the office; and Childeric was confined to a monastery for life. With him ended the first or Merovingian race of the Kings of France, A. D. 751.

4. Pepin recompensed the service done him by the Pope, by turning his arms against the Lombards; and stripping them of the exarchate of Ravenna, he made a donation of that and other considerable territories to the Holy See, which were the first, as is alleged, of its temporal possessions. Conscious of his defective title, it was the principal object of Pepin le Bref to conciliate the affections of the people whom he governed. The legislative power among the Franks was vested in the people assembled in their *Champs de Mars*. Under the Merovingian race the regal authority had sunk to nothing, while the power of the nobles had attained to an inordinate extent. Pepin found it his best policy to acknowledge and ratify those rights, which he could not without danger have invaded; and

thus under the character of guardian of the powers of all the orders of the state, he exalted the regal office to its proper elevation, and founded it on the securest basis. On his death-bed, he called a council of the grandees, and obtained their consent to a division of his kingdom between his two sons, Charles and Carloman. He died A.D. 768, at the age of fifty-three, after a reign of seventeen years from the death of Childeric III., and an administration of twenty-seven from the death of Charles Martel.

MAHARAJA SERFOGI'S SARASWATI MAHAL LIBRARY TANJORE

III.

REFLECTIONS ON THE STATE OF FRANCE DURING THE MEROVINGIAN RACE OF ITS KINGS. ORIGIN OF THE FEUDAL SYSTEM.

1. THE manners of the Franks were similar to those of the other Germanic nations described by Tacitus. Though under the command of a Chief or King, their government was extremely democratical, and they acknowledged no other than a military subordination. The legislative authority resided in the General Assembly, or *Champ de Mars,* held annually on the 1st day of March; a council in which the King had but a single suffrage, equally with the meanest soldier. But when in arms against the enemy, his power was absolute in enforcing military discipline.

2. After the establishment of the Franks in Gaul, some changes took place from their new situation. They reduced the Gauls to absolute subjection; yet they left many in pos-

session of their lands, because the new country was too large for its conquerors. They left them likewise in the use of their existing laws, which were those of the Roman code, while they themselves were governed by the Salique and Ripuarian laws, ancient institutions in observance among the Franks before they left their original seats in Germany. Hence arose that extraordinary diversity of local laws and usages in the kingdom of France, which continue down to modern times, and gave occasion to numberless inconveniences.

3. The ancient Germans had the highest veneration for their priests or Druids. It was natural that the Franks, after their conversion to Christianity, should have the same reverence for their bishops, to whom accordingly they allowed the first rank in the national assembly. These bishops were generally chosen from among the native Gauls; for, having adopted from this nation their new religion, it was natural that their priests should be chosen from the same people. The influence of the clergy contributed much to ameliorate the condition of the conquered

Gauls, and to humanize their conquerors; and in a short space of time the two nations were thoroughly incorporated.

4. At this period a new system of policy is visible among this united people, which by degrees extended itself over most of the nations of Europe, — *the Feudal System.*

By this expression is properly meant that tenure or condition on which the proprietors of land held their possessions, viz. an obligation to perform military service, whenever required by the chief or overlord to whom they owed allegiance.

Many modern writers attribute the origin of this institution or policy to the Kings of the Franks, who, after the conquest of Gaul, are supposed to have divided the lands among their followers, on this condition of military service. But this notion is attended with insurmountable difficulties. For, in the first place, it proceeds on this false idea, that the conquered lands belonged in property to the King, and that he had the right of bestowing them in gifts, or dividing them among his followers; whereas it is a certain fact, that among the Franks the partition of conquered

lands was made by lot, as was the division even of the spoil or booty taken in battle; and that the King's share, though doubtless, a larger portion than that of his captains, was likewise assigned him by lot. Secondly, If we should suppose the King to have made those gifts to his captains out of his own domain, the creation of a very few *beneficia* would have rendered him a poorer man than his subjects. We must therefore have recourse to another supposition for the origin of the fiefs; and we shall find that it is to be traced to a source much more remote than the conquest of Gaul by the Franks.

5. Among all barbarous nations, with whom war is the chief occupation, we remark a strict subordination of the members of a tribe to their chief or leader. It was observed by Caesar as peculiarly strong among the Gaulish nations, and as subsisting not only between the soldiers and their commander, but between the inferior towns or villages and the canton or province to which they belonged. In peace every man cultivated his land, free of all taxation, and subject to no other burden than that of military service when required

by his chief. When the province was at war, each village, though taxed to furnish only a certain number of soldiers, was bound to send, on the day appointed for a general muster, all its males capable of bearing arms, and from these its rated number was selected by the chief of the province. This *clientela* subsisted among the Franks as well as among the Gauls. It subsisted among the Romans, who, in order to secure their distant conquests, were obliged to maintain fixed garrisons on their frontiers, to check the inroads of the Barbarian nations. To each officer in these garrisons it was customary to assign a portion of land as the pledge and pay of his service. These gifts were termed *beneficia*, and their proprietors *beneficiarii*, Plin. Ep. lib. 10. ep. 32. The *beneficia* were at first granted only for life: Alexander Severus allowed them to descend to heirs, on the like condition of military service.

6. When Gaul was over-run by the Franks, a great part of the lands was possessed on this tenure by the Roman soldiery, as the rest was by the native Gauls. The conquerors, accustomed to the same policy, would naturally adopt it in the partition of their new con-

quests; each man, on receiving his share, becoming bound to military service, as a condition necessarily annexed to territorial property. With respect to those Gauls who retained their possessions, no other change was necessary, than to exact the same obligation of military vassalage to their new conquerors that they had rendered to their former masters the Emperors, and, before the Roman conquest, to their native chiefs. Thus no other change took place than that of the overlord. The system was the same which had prevailed for ages.

7. But these *beneficia*, or fiefs, were personal grants, revocable by the Sovereign or overlord, and reverting to him on the death of the vassal. The weakness of the Frank Kings of the Merovingian race imboldened the possessors of fiefs to aspire at independence and security of property. In a convention held at Andeli in 587, to treat of peace between Gontran and Childebert II., the nobles obliged these princes to renounce the right of revoking their benefices, which henceforward passed by inheritance to their eldest male issue.

8. It was a necessary consequence of a fief becoming perpetual and hereditary, that it should be capable of subinfeudation; and that the vassal himself, holding his land of the Sovereign by the tenure of military service, should be enabled to create a train of inferior vassals, by giving to them portions of his estate to be held on the same condition, of following his standard in battle, rendering him homage as their lord, and paying, as the symbol of their subjection, a small annual present, either of money, or the fruits of their lands. Thus, in a little time, the whole territory in the feudal kingdoms was either held immediately and *in capite* of the Sovereign himself, or mediately by inferior vassals of the tenants *in capite*.

9. It was natural, that in those disorderly times, when the authority of government and the obligation of general laws were extremely weak, the superior or over-lord should acquire a civil and criminal jurisdiction over his vassals. The *Comites*, to whom, as the chief magistrates of police, the administration of justice belonged of right, paid little attention to the duties of their office, and shamefully

abused their powers. The inferior classes naturally chose, instead of seeking justice through this corrupted channel, to submit their law-suits to the arbitration of their over-lord; and this jurisdiction, conferred at first by the acquiescence of parties, came at length to be regarded as founded on strict right. Hence arose a perpetual contest of jurisdiction between the greater barons in their own territories and the established judicatories; a natural cause of that extreme anarchy and disorder which prevailed in France during the greater part of the Merovingian period, and which sunk the regal authority to the lowest pitch of abasement. In a government of which every part was at variance with the rest, it is not surprising that a new power should arise, which, in able hands, should be capable of enslaving and bringing the whole under subjection.

10. The Mayor of the Palace, or first officer of the household, gradually usurped, under a series of weak princes, the whole powers of the Sovereign. This office, from a personal dignity, became hereditary in the family of Pepin *Heristel;* and his grandson, Pepin

le Bref, removing from the throne those phantoms of the Merovingian race, assumed, by the authority of a Papal decree, the title of King, and reigned for seventeen years with dignity and success, the founder of the second race of the French monarchs known by the name of the Carlovingian.

IV.

CHARLEMAGNE — THE NEW EMPIRE OF THE WEST.

1. PEPIN *le Bref*, with the consent of his nobles, divided, on his death-bed, the kingdom of France between his sons, Charles and Carloman, A.D. 768. The latter dying a few years after his father, Charles succeeded to the undivided sovereignty. In the course of a reign of forty-five years, *Charlemagne* (for so he was deservedly styled) extended the limits of his empire beyond the Danube; subdued Dacia, Dalmatia, and Istria; conquered and

subjected all the barbarous tribes to the banks of the Vistula, made himself master of a great portion of Italy, and successfully encountered the arms of the Saracens, the Huns, the Bulgarians, and the Saxons. His war with the Saxons was of thirty years duration, and their final conquest was not achieved without an inhuman waste of blood. At the request of the Pope, and to discharge the obligation of his father Pepin to the Holy See, Charlemagne, though allied by marriage to Desiderius King of the Lombards, dispossessed that prince of all his dominions, and put a final period to the Lombard dominion in Italy, A.D. 774.

2. He made his entry into Rome at the festival of Easter, was there crowned King of France and of the Lombards, and was, by Pope Adrian I., invested with the right of ratifying the election of the Popes. Irene, Empress of the East, sought to ally herself with Charlemagne, by the marriage of her son Constantine to the daughter of this monarch; but her subsequent inhuman conduct, in putting Constantine to death, gave ground to

suspect the sincerity of her desire for that alliance.

3. In the last visit of Charlemagne to Italy, he was consecrated Emperor of the West by the hands of Pope Leo III. It is probable, that had he chosen Rome for his residence and seat of government, and at his death transmitted to his successor an undivided dominion, that great but fallen empire might have once more been restored to lustre and respect: but Charlemagne had no fixed capital, and he divided, even in his lifetime, his dominions among his children, A.D. 806.

4. The economy of government and the domestic administration of Charlemagne merit attention. Pepin *le Bref* had introduced the system of annual assemblies or parliaments, held at first in March, and afterwards in May, where the chief estates of clergy and nobles were called to deliberate on the public affairs and the wants of the people. Charlemagne appointed the assemblies to be held twice in the year, in spring and in autumn. In the latter all affairs were prepared and digested; in the former was transacted the

business of legislation; and of this assembly he made the people a party, by admitting from each province or district twelve deputies or representatives. The assembly now consisted of three estates, who each formed a separate chamber, which discussed apart the concerns of its own order, and afterwards united to communicate their resolutions, or to deliberate on their common interests. The Sovereign was never present, unless when called to ratify the decrees of the assembly.

5. Charlemagne divided the empire into provinces, and these into districts, each comprehending a certain number of counties. The districts were governed by royal envoys, chosen from the clergy and nobles, and bound to an exact visitation of their territories every three months. These envoys held yearly conventions, at which were present the higher clergy and barons, to discuss the affairs of the district, examine the conduct of its magistrates, and redress the grievances of individuals. At the general assembly, or *Champ de Mai*, the royal envoys made their report to the Sovereign and States; and thus the public

attention was constantly directed to all the concerns of the empire.

6. The private character of Charlemagne was most amiable and respectable. His secretary, Eginhart, has painted his domestic life in beautiful and simple colouring. The economy of his family, when the daughters of the Emperor were assiduously employed in spinning and housewifery, and the sons trained by their father in the practice of all manly exercises, is characteristic of an age of great simplicity. This illustrious man died A. D. 814, in the seventy-second year of his age. Contemporary with him was Haroun Alraschid, Caliph of the Saracens, equally celebrated for his conquests, excellent policy, and the wisdom and humanity of his government.

7. Of all the lawful sons of Charlemagne, Lewis the *Débonnaire* was the only one who survived him, and who therefore succeeded without dispute to the imperial dominions, excepting Italy, which the Emperor had settled on Bernard, his grandson by Pepin, his second son.

V.

MANNERS, GOVERNMENT, AND CUSTOMS OF THE AGE OF CHARLEMAGNE.

1. In establishing the provincial conventions under the royal envoys, Charlemagne did not entirely abolish the authority of the ancient chief magistrates, the Dukes and Counts. They continued to command the troops of the province, and to make the levies in stated numbers from each district. Cavalry was not numerous in the imperial armies, twelve farms being taxed to furnish only one horseman with his armour and accoutrements. The province supplied six months provisions to its complement of men, and the King maintained them during the rest of the campaign.

2. The engines for the attack and defence of towns were, as in former times, the ram, the balista, catapulta, testudo, &c. Charlemagne had his ships of war stationed in the mouths of all the large rivers. He bestowed

great attention on commerce. The merchants of Italy and the south of France traded to the Levant, and exchanged the commodities of Europe and Asia. Venice and Genoa were rising into commercial opulence; and the manufactures of wool, of glass, and iron, were successfully cultivated in many of the principal towns in the south of Europe.

3. The value of money was nearly the same as in the Roman empire in the age of Constantine the Great. The numerary livre, in the age of Charlemagne, was supposed to be a pound of silver, in value about £3 sterling of English money. At present the livre is worth 10½d. English. Hence we ought to be cautious in forming our estimate of ancient money from its name; and from the want of this caution have arisen the most erroneous ideas of the commerce, riches, and strength of the ancient kingdoms.

4. The *Capitularia* of Charlemagne, compiled into a body A. D. 827, were recovered from oblivion in 1531 and 1545. They present many circumstances illustrative of the manners of the times. Unless in great cities,

there were no inns; the laws obliged every man to give accommodation to travellers. The chief towns were built of wood, and even the walls were of that material. The state of the mechanic arts was very low in Europe: the Saracens had brought them to greater perfection. Painting and sculpture were only preserved from absolute extinction by the existing remains of ancient art. Charlemagne appears to have been anxious for the improvement of music; and the Italians are said to have instructed his French performers in the art of playing on the organ. Architecture was studied and successfully cultivated in that style termed the Gothic, which admits of great beauty, elegance, and magnificence. The composition of Mosaic appears to have been an invention of those ages.

5. The knowledge of letters was extremely low, and confined to a few of the ecclesiastics: But Charlemagne gave the utmost encouragement to literature and the sciences, inviting into his dominions of France men eminent in those departments from Italy, and from the Britannic isles, which, in those dark ages, pre-

served more of the light of learning than any of the western kingdoms. "*Neque enim silenda laus Britanniae, Scotiae, et Hiberniae, quae studio liberalium artium eo tempore antecellebant reliquis occidentalibus regnis; et cura praesertim monachorum, qui literarum gloriam, alibi aut languentem aut depressam, in iis regionibus impigrè suscitarent atque tuebantur.*" Murat. Antiq. Ital. Diss. 43. The scarcity of books in those times, and the nature of their subjects, legends, lives of the saints, &c. evince the narrow diffusion of literature.

6. The pecuniary fines for homicide, the ordeal or judgment of God, and judicial combat, were striking peculiarities in the laws and manners of the northern nations, and particularly of the Franks. With this warlike but barbarous people, revenge was esteemed honourable and meritorious. The high-spirited warrior chastised or vindicated with his own hand the injuries he had received or inflicted. The magistrate interfered, not to punish, but to reconcile, and was satisfied if he could persuade the aggressor to pay and the injured party to accept the moderate fine which

was imposed as the price of blood; and of which the measure was estimated according to the rank, the sex, and the country of the person slain. But increasing civilisation abolished those barbarous distinctions. We have remarked the equal severity of the laws of the Visigoths, both in the crime of murder and robbery; and even among the Franks, in the age of Charlemagne, deliberate murder was punished with death.

7. By their ancient laws, a party accused of any crime was allowed to produce compurgators, or a certain number of witnesses, according to the measure of the offence; and if these declared upon oath their belief of his innocence, it was held a sufficient exculpation. Seventy-two compurgators were required to acquit a murderer or an incendiary. The flagrant perjuries occasioned by this absurd practice probably gave rise to the trial by ordeal, which was termed, as it was believed to be, the judgment of God. The criminal was ordered, at the option of the judge, to prove his innocence or guilt, by the ordeal of cold water, of boiling water, or red-hot iron. He was tied hand and foot, and thrown into a

pool, to sink or swim; he was made to fetch a ring from the bottom of a vessel of boiling water, or to walk barefooted over burning plough-shares; and history records examples of those wonderful experiments having been undergone without injury or pain.

8. Another peculiarity of the laws and manners of the northern nations was judicial combat. Both in civil suits and in the trial of crimes, the party destitute of legal proofs might challenge his antagonist to mortal combat, and rest the cause upon its issue. This sanguinary and most iniquitous custom, which may be traced to this day in the practice of duelling, had the authority of law in the court of the Constable and Marshal, even in the last century, in France and England.

VI.

RETROSPECTIVE VIEW OF THE AFFAIRS OF THE CHURCH PRECEDING THE AGE OF CHARLEMAGNE.

1. THE Arian and Pelagian heresies divided the Christian church for many ages. In the

fourth century, Arius, a presbyter of Alexandria, maintained the separate and inferior nature of the second Person of the Trinity, regarding Christ as the noblest of created beings, through whose agency the Creator had formed the universe. His doctrine was condemned in the Council of Nice, held by Constantine A. D. 325, who afterwards became a convert to his opinions. These for many centuries had an extensive influence, and produced the sects of the Eunomians, Semi-Arians, Eusebians, &c.

2. In the beginning of the fifth century, Pelagius and Caelestius, the former a native of Britain, the latter of Ireland, denied the doctrine of original sin, and the necessity of divine grace to enlighten the understanding, and purify the heart; and maintained the sufficiency of man's natural powers for the attainment of the highest degrees of piety and virtue. These tenets were ably combated by St. Augustine, and condemned by an ecclesiastical council, but have ever continued to find many supporters.

3. The most obstinate source of controversy in those ages was regarding the worship of

images; a practice which, though at first opposed by the clergy, was afterwards, from interested motives, countenanced and vindicated by them. It was, however, long a subject of division in the church. The Emperor Leo the Isaurian, A.D. 727, attempted to suppress this idolatry, by the destruction of every statue and picture found in the churches, and by punishment of their worshippers; but this intemperate zeal rather increased than repressed the superstition. His son Constantine Copronymus, with wiser policy, satisfied himself with procuring its condemnation by the church.

4. From the doctrines of the Platonic and Stoic philosophy, which recommended the purification of the soul, by redeeming it from its subjection to the senses, arose the system of penances, mortification, religious sequestration, and monachism. After Constantine had put an end to the persecution of the Christians, many conceived it a duty to procure for themselves voluntary grievances and sufferings. They retired into caves and hermitages, and there practised the most rigorous mortifications of the flesh, by fasting, scourging, vigils, &c. This phrenzy first showed itself in

Egypt in the fourth century, whence it spread all over the East, a great part of Africa, and within the limits of the bishopric of Rome. In the time of Theodosius, these devotees began to form communities or *coenobia*, each associate binding himself by oath to observe the rules of his order. St. Benedict introduced monachism into Italy under the reign of Totila; and his order, the Benedictine, soon became extremely numerous, and most opulent, from the many rich donations made by the devout and charitable, who conceived they profited by their prayers. Benedict sent colonies into Sicily and France, whence they soon spread over all Europe.

2. In the East, the *monachi solitarii* were first incorporated into *coenobia* by St. Basil, Bishop of Caesarea, in the middle of the fourth century; and, some time before that period, the first monasteries for women were founded in Egypt by the sister of St. Pacomo. From these, in the following age, sprung a variety of orders, under different rules. The rule of the Canons Regular was framed after the model of the apostolic life. The Mendicants, to chastity, obedience, and poverty,

added the obligation of begging alms. The military religious orders were unknown till the age of the holy war. (See *postea*, Sect. XVII. § 3.) The monastic fraternities owed their reputation chiefly to the little literary knowledge which, in those ages of ignorance, they exclusively possessed.

6. In the fifth century arose a set of fanatics termed *Stylites,* or pillar-saints, who passed their lives on the tops of pillars of various height. Simeon of Syria lived thirty-seven years on a pillar sixty feet high, and died upon it. This phrenzy prevailed in the East for many centuries.

7. Auricular confession, which had been abolished in the East in the fourth century, began to be in use in the West in the age of Charlemagne, and has ever since prevailed in the Romish church. The canonisation of saints was for near twelve centuries practised by every bishop. Pope Alexander III., one of the most vicious of men, first claimed and assumed this right, as the exclusive privilege of the successor of St. Peter.

8. The conquests of Charlemagne spread Christianity in the north of Europe; but all

beyond the limits of his conquests was idolatrous. Britain and Ireland had received the light of Christianity at an earlier period, but it was afterwards extinguished, and again revived under the Saxon Heptarchy.

VII.

EMPIRE OF THE WEST UNDER THE SUCCESSORS OF CHARLEMAGNE.

1. THE empire of Charlemagne, raised and supported solely by his abilities, fell to pieces under his weak posterity. Lewis (*le Débonnaire*), the only survivor of his lawful sons, was consecrated Emperor and King of the Franks at Aix-le-Chapelle, A.D. 816. Among the first acts of his reign was the partition of his dominions among his children. To Pepin, his second son, he gave Aquitaine, the southern third of France; to Lewis, the youngest, Bavaria; and he associated his eldest son Lotharius with himself in the government of the rest. The three princes quarrelled

among themselves, agreeing in nothing but in hostilities against their father. They made open war against him, supported by Pope Gregory IV. The pretence was, that the Emperor having a younger son, Charles, born to him after this partition of his states, wanted to provide this child likewise in a share, which could not be done but at the expense of his elder brothers. Lewis was compelled to surrender himself a prisoner to his rebellious children. They confined him for a year to a monastery; till, on a new quarrel between Lewis the younger and Pepin, Lotharius once more restored his father to the throne: but his spirits were broken, his health decayed, and he finished, soon after, an inglorious and turbulent reign, A. D. 840.

2. The dissensions of the brothers still continued. Lotharius, now Emperor, and Pepin, his brother's son, having taken up arms against the two other sons of Lewis *le Débonnaire*, Lewis of Bavaria, and Charles the Bald, were defeated by them in the battle of Fontenai, where 1,000,000 are said to have fallen in the field. The church, in those times, was a prime organ of civil policy. A council of bishops

immediately assembled, and solemnly deposed Lotharius; assuming, at the same time, an equal authority over his conquerors, whom they permitted to reign, on the express condition of submissive obedience to the supreme spiritual authority. Yet Lotharius, excommunicated and deposed, found means so to accommodate matters with his brothers, that they agreed to a new partition of the empire. By the treaty of Verdun, A.D. 843, the western part of France, termed Neustria and Aquitaine, was assigned to Charles the Bald; Lotharius, with the title of Emperor, had the nominal sovereignty of Italy, and the real territory of Lorraine, Franche Compté, Provence, and the Lyonnois; the share of Lewis was the kingdom of Germany.

3. Thus was Germany finally separated from the empire of the Franks. On the death of Lotharius, Charles the Bald assumed the empire, or, as is said, purchased it from Pope John VIII. on the condition of holding it as vassal to the Holy See. This prince, after a weak and inglorious reign, died by poison, A. D. 877. He was the first of the French monarchs who made dignities and titles here-

ditary. Under the distracted reigns of the Carlovingian Kings, the nobles attained great power, and commanded a formidable vassalage. They strengthened themselves in their castles and fortresses, and bid defiance to the arm of government, while the country was ravaged and desolated by their feuds.

4. In the reign of Charles the Bald, France was plundered by the Normans, a new race of Goths from Scandinavia, who had begun their depredations even in the time of Charlemagne, checked only in their progress by the terror of his arms. In A. D. 843, they sailed up the Seine, and plundered Rouen; while another fleet entered the Loire, and laid waste the country in its vicinity, carrying, together with its spoils, men, women, and children, into captivity. In the following year they attacked the coasts of England, France, and Spain, but were repelled from the last by the good conduct and courage of its Mahometan rulers. In 845, they entered the Elbe, plundered Hamburgh, and penetrated far into Germany. Eric, King of Denmark, who commanded these Normans, sent once more a fleet into the Seine, which advanced to Paris. Its inha-

bitants fled, and the city was burnt. Another fleet, with little resistance, pillaged Bourdeaux. To avert the arms of these ravagers, Charles the Bald bribed them with money; and his successor, Charles the Gross, yielded them a part of his *Flemish dominions.* These were only incentives to fresh depredation. Paris was attacked a second time, but gallantly defended by Count Odo or Eudes, and the venerable Bishop Goslin. A truce was a second time concluded, and the barbarians only changed the scene of their attack. They besieged Sens, and plundered Burgundy, while an assembly of the States held at Mentz deposed the unworthy Charles, and conferred the Crown on the more deserving Eudes; *who, during a reign* of ten years, manfully withstood the Normans. A great part of the states of France, however, refused his title to the Crown, and gave their allegiance to Charles sirnamed the Simple.

Rollo, the Norman, in 912, compelled the King of France to yield him a large portion of the territory *of Neustria, and to give him* his daughter in marriage. The new kingdom

was now called Normandy, of which Rouen was the capital. It is the race of those warriors whom we shall see presently the conquerors of England.

VIII.

EMPIRE OF THE EAST DURING THE EIGHTH AND NINTH CENTURIES.

1. WHILE the new empire of the west was thus rapidly tending to dissolution, the empire of Constantinople retained yet a vestige of its ancient grandeur. It had lost its African and Syrian dependencies, and was plundered by the Saracens on the eastern frontier, and ravaged on the north and west by the Abari and Bulgarians. The capital, though splendid and refined, was a constant scene of rebellions and conspiracies; and the Imperial family itself, exhibited a series of the most horrid crimes and atrocities: One Emperor put to death in revenge of murder and incest; another poisoned by his Queen; a third

assassinated in the bath by his own domestics; a fourth tearing out the eyes of his brothers; the Empress Irene, respectable for her talents, but infamous for the murder of her only son. Of such complexion was that series of princes who swayed the sceptre of the East for near 200 years.

2. In the latter part of this period, a most violent controversy was maintained respecting the worship of images, and they were alternately destroyed and replaced according to the humour of the sovereign. The female sex were their most zealous supporters. This was not the only subject of division in the Christian church: the doctrines of the Manichees were then extremely prevalent, and the sword was frequently employed to support and propagate their tenets.

3. The misfortunes of the empire were increased by an invasion of the Russians from the Palus Moeotis and Euxine. In the reign of Leo, named the philosopher, the Turks, a new race of barbarians, of Scythian or Tartarian breed, began to make effectual inroads on its territories; and much about the same

time its domestic calamities were aggravated by the separation of the Greek from the Latin church, of which we shall treat under the following section.

IX.

STATE OF THE CHURCH IN THE EIGHTH AND NINTH CENTURIES.

1. THE Popes had begun to acquire a temporal authority under Pepin *le Bref* and Charlemagne, from the donations of territory made by those princes, and they were now gradually extending a spiritual jurisdiction over all the Christian kingdoms. Nicholas I. proclaimed to the whole world his paramount judgment in appeal from the sentences of all spiritual judicatories; his power of assembling councils of the church, and of regulating it by the canons of those councils; the right of exercising his authority by legates in all the kingdoms of Europe, and the control of the Pope over all princes and governors.

Literary imposture gave its support to these pretences: the forgery of the epistles of Isidorus was not completely exposed till the sixteenth century. Among the prerogatives of the Popes was the regulation of the marriages of all crowned heads by the extreme extension of the prohibitions of the canon law, with which they alone had the power of dispensing.

2. One extraordinary event (if true) afforded, in the ninth century, a ludicrous interruption to the boasted succession of regular bishops from the days of St. Peter, the election of a female Pope, who is said to have ably governed the church for three years, till detected by the birth of a child. Till the reformation by Luther, this event was neither regarded by the Catholics as incredible, nor disgraceful to the church: since that time its truth or falsehood has been the subject of keen controversy between the Protestants and Catholics; and the evidence for the latter seems to preponderate.

3. While the church was thus gradually extending its influence, and its head arrogating the control over Sovereign Princes, these by

a singular interchange of character, seem, in those ages, to have fixed their chief attention on spiritual concerns. Kings, Dukes, and Counts, neglecting their temporal duties, shut themselves up in cloisters, and spent their lives in prayers and penances. Ecclesiastics were employed in all the departments of secular government; and these alone conducted all public measures and state negociations, which of course they directed to the great objects of advancing the interests of the church, and establishing the paramount authority of the Holy See.

4. At this period, however, when the Popedom seemed to have attained its highest ascendency, it suffered a severe wound in that remarkable schism which separated the patriarchates of Rome and Constantinople, or the Greek and Latin churches. The Roman Pontiff had hitherto claimed the right of nominating the patriarch of Constantinople. The Emperor Michael III. denied this right; and deposing the Pope's patriarch, Ignatius, appointed the celebrated Photius in his stead. Pope Nicholas I. resented this affront with a high spirit, and deposed and excommuni-

cated Photius, A. D. 863, who, in his turn, pronounced a similar sentence against the Pope. The church was divided, each patriarch being supported by many bishops and their dependent clergy. The Greek and Latin bishops had long differed in many points of practice and discipline, as the celibacy of the clergy, the shaving their beards, &c.; but in reality the prime source of division was the ambition of the rival Pontiffs, and the jealousy of the Greek Emperors, unwilling to admit the control of Rome, and obstinately asserting every prerogative which they conceived to be annexed to the capital of the Roman empire. As neither party would yield its pretensions, the division of the Greek and Latin churches became from this time permanent.

5. Amid those ambitious contests for ecclesiastical power and pre-eminence, the Christian religion itself was disgraced, both by the practice and by the principles of its teachers. Worldly ambition, gross voluptuosness, and grosser ignorance, characterised all ranks of the clergy; and the open sale of benefices placed them often in the hands of the basest

and most profligate of men. Yet the character of Photius forms an illustrious exception. Though bred a statesman and a soldier, and in both these respects of great reputation, he attained, by his singular abilities, learning, and worth, the highest dignity of the church. His *Bibliotheca* is a monument of the most various knowledge, erudition, and critical judgment.

X.

OF THE SARACENS IN THE EIGHTH AND NINTH CENTURIES.

1. In the beginning of the eighth century, the Saracens subverted the monarchy of the Visigoths in Spain, and easily over-ran the country. They had lately founded in Africa the empire of Morocco, which was governed by Muza, viceroy of the Caliph Valid Almanzor. Muza sent his general Tariff into Spain, who, in one memorable engagement, fought A.D. 713, stripped the Gothic King Rodrigo of his crown and life. The conquerors,

satisfied with the sovereignty of the country, left the vanquished Goths in possession of their property, their laws, and their religion. Abdallah the Moor married the widow of Rodrigo, and the two nations formed a perfect union. One small part of the rocky country of Asturia alone adhered to its Christian Prince, Pelagius, who maintained his little sovereignty, and transmitted it inviolate to his successors.

2. The Moors pushed their conquests beyond the Pyrenees; but division arising among their Emirs, and civil wars ensuing, Lewis *le Débonnaire* took advantage of the turbulent state of the country, and invaded and seized Barcelona. The Moorish sovereignty in the north of Spain was weakened by throwing off its dependence on the Caliphs; and at this juncture the Christian sovereignty of the Asturias, under Alphonzo the Chaste, began to make vigorous encroachments on the territory of the Moors. Navarre and Arragon, roused by this example, chose each a Christian King, and boldly asserted their liberty and independence.

3. While the Moors of Spain were thus losing ground in the north, they were highly flourishing in the southern parts of that kingdom. Abdalrahman, the last heir of the family of the Ommiades, (the Abassidae now enjoying the Caliphate,) was recognised as the true representative of the ancient line by the southern Moors. He fixed the seat of his government at Cordova, which, from that time, for two centuries, was the capital of a splendid monarchy. This period, from the middle of the eighth to the middle of the tenth century, is the most brilliant aera of Arabian magnificence. Whilst Haroun Alraschid made Bagdat illustrious by the splendour of the arts and sciences, the Moors of Cordova vied with their brethren of Asia in the same honourable pursuits, and were undoubtedly, at this period, the most enlightened of the states in Europe. Under a series of able princes, they gained the highest reputation, both in arts and arms, of all the nations of the West.

4. The Saracens were at this time extending their conquests in almost every quarter of the world. The Mahometan religion was pro-

fessed over a great part of India, and all along the Eastern and Mediterranean coast of Africa. The African Saracens invaded Sicily, and projected the conquest of Italy. They actually laid siege to Rome, which was nobly defended by Pope Leo IV. They were repulsed, their ships were dispersed by a storm, and their army was cut to pieces, A. D. 848.

5. The Saracens might have raised an immense empire, had they acknowledged only one head; but their states were always disunited. Egypt, Morocco, Spain, India, had all their separate sovereigns, who, though they continued to respect the Caliph of Bagdat as the successor of the Prophet, acknowledged no temporal subjection to his government.

XI.

EMPIRE OF THE WEST AND ITALY IN THE TENTH AND ELEVENTH CENTURIES.

1. THE empire founded by Charlemagne now subsisted only in name. Arnold, a bastard son of Carloman, possessed Germany. Italy was divided between Guy Duke of Spoletto and Berengarius Duke of Priuli, who had received these dutchies from Charles the Bald. France, though claimed by Arnold, was governed by Eudes. Thus the empire in reality consisted only of a part of Germany, while France, Spain, Italy, Burgundy, and the countries between the Maes and Rhine, were all subject to different powers. The Emperors were at this time elected by the bishops and grandees, all of whom claimed a voice. In this manner Lewis, the son of Arnold, the last of the blood of Charlemagne, was chosen Emperor after the death of his father. On his demise, Otho Duke of Saxony,

by his credit with his brother grandees, conferred the empire on Conrad Duke of Franconia, at whose death, Henry, surnamed the Fowler, son of the same Duke Otho, was elected Emperor, A.D. 918.

2. Henry I. (the Fowler), a prince of great abilities, introduced order and good government into the empire. He united the grandees, and curbed their usurpations; built, embellished, and fortified the cities; and enforced with great rigour the execution of the laws in the repression of all enormities. He had been consecrated by his own bishops, and maintained no correspondence with the See of Rome.

3. His son Otho (the Great), A.D. 938, again united Italy to the empire, and kept the Popedom in complete subjection. He made Denmark tributary to the Imperial crown, annexed the crown of Bohemia to his own dominions, and seemed to aim at a paramount authority over all the sovereigns of Europe.

4. Otho owed his ascendency in Italy to the disorders of the Papacy. Formosus, twice excommunicated by Pope John VIII., had himself arrived at the triple crown. On his

death, his rival, Pope Stephen VII., caused his body to be dug out of the grave, and, after trial for his crimes, condemned it to be flung into the Tiber. The friends of Formosus fished up the corpse, and had interest to procure the deposition of Stephen, who was strangled in prison. A succeeding Pope, Sergius III., again dug up the ill-fated carcase, and once more threw it into the river. Two infamous women, Marozia and Theodora, managed for many years the Popedom, and filled the chair of St. Peter with their own gallants, or their adulterous offspring. Such was the state of the Holy See, when Berengarius Duke of Priuli disputed the sovereignty of Italy with Hugh of Arles. The Italian states and Pope John XII., who took part against Berengarius, invited Otho to compose the disorders of the country. He entered Italy, defeated Berengarius, and was consecrated Emperor by the Pope, with the titles of Caesar and Augustus; in return for which honours he confirmed the donations made to the Holy See by his predecessors, Pepin, Charlemagne, and Lewis the Débonnaire, A.D. 962.

5. But John XII. was false to his new ally. He made his peace with Berengarius, and both turned their arms against the Emperor. Otho flew back to Rome, and revenged himself by the trial and deposition of the Pope; but he had scarcely left the city, when John, by the aid of his party, displaced his rival Leo VIII. Otho once more returned, and took exemplary vengeance on his enemies, by hanging one half of the senate. Calling together the Lateran Council, he created a new Pope, and obtained from the assembled bishops a solemn acknowledgment of the absolute right of the Emperor to elect to the Papacy, to give the investiture of the Crown of Italy, and to nominate to all vacant bishoprics; concessions no longer observed than while the Emperor was present to enforce them.

6. Such was the state of Rome and Italy under Otho the Great; and it continued to be much the same under his successors for a century. The Emperors asserted their sovereignty over Italy and the Popedom, though with a constant resistance on the part of the Romans, and a general repugnance of the Pope,

when once established. In those ages of ecclesiastical profligacy, it was not unusual to put up the Popedom to sale. Benedict VIII. and John XIX., two brothers, publicly bought the chair of St. Peter, one after the other; and to keep it in their family, it was purchased afterwards by their friends for Benedict IX., a child of twelve years of age. Three Popes, each pretending regular election, and equal right, agreed first to divide the revenues between them, and afterwards sold all their shares to a fourth.

7. The Emperor Henry III., a prince of great ability, strenuously vindicated his right to supply the Pontifical Chair, and created three successive Popes without opposition.

XII.

HISTORY OF BRITAIN FROM ITS EARLIEST PERIOD DOWN TO THE NORMAN CONQUEST.

1. The history of Britain has been postponed to this time, in order that it may be considered in one connected view from its earliest period to the end of the Anglo-Saxon government.

We strive not to pierce through that mist of obscurity which veils the original population of the British Isles; remarking only as a matter of high probability, that they derived their first inhabitants from the Celtae of Gaul. Their authentic history commences with the first Roman invasion: and we learn from Cæsar and Tacitus, that the country was at that period in a state very remote from barbarism. It was divided into a number of small independent sovereignties, each Prince having a regular army and a fixed revenue. The manners, language, and religion of the

people were the same with those of the Gallic Celtae. The last was the Druidical system, whose influence pervaded every department of the government, and, by its power over the minds of the people, supplied the imperfection of laws.

2. Julius Caesar, after the conquest of Gaul, turned his eyes towards Britain. He landed on the southern coast of the island, 55 B.C.; and meeting with most obstinate resistance, though on the whole gaining some advantage, he found himself obliged, after a short campaign, to withdraw for the winter into Gaul. He returned in the following summer with a great increase of force, an army of 20,000 foot, a competent body of horse, and a fleet of 800 sail. The independent chiefs of the Britons united their forces under Cassibelanus King of the Trinobantes, and, encountering the legions with great resolution, displayed all the ability of practised warriors. But the contest was vain. Caesar advanced into the country, burnt Verulamium, the capital of Cassibelanus, and, after forcing the

Britons into articles of submission, returned to Gaul.

3. The domestic disorders of Italy gave tranquillity to the Britons for near a century; but, in the reign of Claudius, the conquest of the island was determined. The Emperor landed in Britain, and compelled the submission of the south-eastern provinces. Ostorius Scapula defeated Caractacus, who was sent prisoner to Rome. Suetonus Paulinus, the general of Nero, destroyed Mona, (Anglesey, or, as others think, Man,) the centre of the Druidical superstition. The Iceni, (inhabitants of Norfolk and Suffolk,) under their Queen Boadicea, attacked several of the Roman settlements. London, with its Roman garrison, was burnt to ashes. But a decisive battle ensued, in which 80,000 of the Britons fell in the field, A. D. 61. The reduction of the island, however, was not completed till thirty years afterwards, in the reign of Titus, by Julius Agricola; who, after securing the Roman province against invasion from the Caledonians by walls and garrisons, reconciled the southern inhabitants, by the introduction

of Roman arts and improvements, to the government of their conquerors. Under Severus, the Roman province was far extended into the north of Scotland.

4. With the decline of the Roman power in the west, the southern Britons recovered their liberty, but it was only to become the object of incessant predatory invasion from their brethren of the north. The Romans, after rebuilding the wall of Severus, finally bid adieu to Britain, A.D. 448. The Picts and Caledonians now broke down upon the south, ravaging and desolating the country, though without a purpose of conquest, merely, as it appears, for the supply of their temporary wants. After repeated application for aid from Rome, without success, the Britons meanly solicited the Saxons of Germany for succour and protection.

5. The Saxons received the embassy with great satisfaction. Britain had been long known to them in their piratical voyages to its coasts. They landed to the amount of 1600, under the command of Hengist and Horsa, A.D. 450, and, joining the South Britons, soon compelled the Scots to retire to

their mountains. They next turned their thoughts to the entire reduction of the Britons; and receiving large reinforcements of their countrymen, after an obstinate contest of near 150 years, they reduced the whole of England under the Saxon government. Seven distinct provinces became as many independent kingdoms.

6. The history of the Saxon Heptarchy is uninteresting, from its obscurity and confusion. It is sufficient to mark the duration of the several kingdoms till their union under Egbert. Kent began in 455, and lasted, under seventeen princes, till 827, when it was subdued by the West Saxons. Under Ethelbert, one of its Kings, the Saxons were converted to Christianity by the Monk Augustine. Northumberland began in 597, and lasted, under twenty-three Kings, till 792. East Anglia began in 575, and ended in 793. Mercia subsisted from 582 to 827. Essex had fourteen princes from 527 to 747; Sussex only five; before its reduction under the dominion of the West Saxons, about 600. Wessex, which finally subdued and united the whole of the Heptarchy, began in 519,

and had not subsisted above eighty years, when Cadwalla, its King, conquered and annexed Sussex to his dominions. As there was no fixed rule of succession, it was the policy of the Saxon Princes to put to death all the rivals of their intended successor. From this cause, and from the passion for celibacy, the royal families were nearly extinguished in the kingdoms of the Heptarchy; and Egbert, Prince of the West Saxons, remained the sole surviving descendant of the Saxon conquerors of Britain. This circumstance, so favourable to his ambition, prompted him to attempt the conquest of the Heptarchy. He succeeded in that enterprise; and by his victorious arms and judicious policy, the whole of the separate states were united into one great kingdom, A.D. 827, near 400 years after the first arrival of the Saxons in Britain.

7. England, thus united, was far from enjoying tranquillity. The piratical Normans or Danes had for fifty years desolated her coasts, and continued for some centuries after this period to be a perpetual scourge to the country. Under Alfred (the Great), grandson of Egbert, the kingdom was from this

cause reduced to extreme wretchedness. The heroic Alfred, in one year, engaged and defeated the Danes in eight battles; when a new irruption of their countrymen forced him to solicit a peace, which these pirates constantly interrupted by new hostilities. The monarch himself was compelled to seek his safety for many months in an obscure quarter of the country, till the disorders of the Danish army offered a fair opportunity, which he improved to the entire defeat of his enemies. He might have cut them all to pieces, but he chose rather to spare and to incorporate them with his English subjects. This clemency did not restrain them from attempting a new invasion; but they were again defeated with immense loss: and the extreme severity now from necessity shown to the vanquished, had the effect of suspending, for several years, the Danish depredations.

8. Alfred, whether considered in his public or private character, deserves to be reckoned among the best and greatest of princes. He united the most enterprising and heroic spirit with consummate prudence and moderation; the utmost vigour of authority with the most

engaging gentleness of manner; the most exemplary justice with the greatest lenity; the talents of the statesman, and the man of letters, with the intrepid resolution and conduct of the general. He found the kingdom in the most miserable condition to which anarchy, domestic barbarism, and foreign hostility, could reduce it: he brought it to a pitch of eminence surpassing, in many respects, the situation of its contemporary nations.

9. Alfred divided England into counties, with their subdivisions of hundreds and tithings. The tithing or decennary consisted of ten families, over which presided a tithing-man, or borgholder; and ten of these composed the hundred. Every householder was answerable for his family, and the tithing-man, for all within his tithing. In the decision of differences, the tithing-man had the assistance of the rest of his decennary. An appeal lay from the decennary to the court of the hundred, which was assembled every four weeks; and the cause was tried by a jury of twelve freeholders, sworn to do impartial justice. An annual meeting of the hundred was held for the regulation of the police of the dis-

trict. The county-court, superior to that of the hundred, and consisting of all the freeholders, met twice a year, after Michaelmas and Easter, to determine appeals from the hundreds, and settle disputes between the inhabitants of different hundreds. The ultimate appeal from all these courts lay to the King in council; and the frequency of these appeals prompted Alfred to the most extreme circumspection in the appointment of his judges. He composed, for the regulation of these courts, and of his kingdom, a body of laws, the basis of the common law of England.

10. Alfred gave every encouragement to the cultivation of letters, as the best means of eradicating barbarism. He invited, from every quarter of Europe, the learned to reside in his dominions, established schools, and is said to have founded the University of Oxford. He was himself a most accomplished scholar for the age in which he lived, as appears from the works he composed; poetical apologues, the translation of the histories of Bede and Orosius, and of Boethius on the Consolation of Philosophy. In every view of his character we must regard Alfred the

Great as one of the best and wisest men that ever occupied the regal seat. He died in the vigour of his age, A.D. 901, after a glorious reign of twenty-nine years and a half.

11. The admirable institutions of Alfred were partially and feebly enforced under his successors; and England, still a prey to the ravages of the Danes and intestine disorder, relapsed into confusion and barbarism. The reigns of Edward the elder, the son of Alfred, and of his successors, Athelstan, Edmund, and Edred, were tumultuous and anarchical. The clergy began to extend their authority over the throne, and a series of succeeding Princes were the obsequious slaves of their tyranny and ambition. Under Ethelred, A.D. 981, the Danes seriously projected the conquest of England, and led by Sweyn King of Denmark, and Olaus King of Norway, made a formidable descent, won several important battles, and were restrained from the destruction of London only by a dastardly submission, and a promise of tribute to be paid by the inglorious Ethelred. The English nobility were ashamed of their Prince, and seeing no other relief to the kingdom,

made a tender of the crown to the Danish monarch. On the death of Sweyn, Ethelred attempted to regain his kingdom, but found in Canute the son of Sweyn, a Prince determined to support his claims, which, on the death of Ethelred, were gallantly but ineffectually resisted by his son Edmund Ironside. At length a partition of the kingdom was made between Canute and Edmund, which, after a few months, the Danes annulled by the murder of Edmund, thus securing to their monarch Canute the throne of all England, A.D. 1017. Edmund left two children, Edgar Atheling, and Margaret, afterwards wife to Malcolm Canmore, King of Scotland.

12. Canute, the most powerful monarch of his time, Sovereign of Denmark, Norway, and England, swayed for seventeen years the sceptre of England with a firm and vigorous hand; severe in the beginning of his reign, while his government was insecure, but mild and equitable when possessed of a settled dominion. He left (A.D. 1036) three sons, Sweyn, who was crowned King of Norway, Harold, who succeeded to the throne of Eng-

land, and Hardicanute, Sovereign of Denmark. Harold, a merciless tyrant, died in the fourth year of his reign, and was succeeded by Hardicanute, who, after a violent administration of two years, died in a fit of debauch. The English seized this opportunity of shaking off the Danish yoke; and they conferred the crown on Edward, a younger son of Ethelred, rejecting the preferable right of Edgar Atheling, the son of Edmund, who, unfortunately for his pretensions, was, at this time, abroad in Hungary. Edward, surnamed the Confessor, (A. D. 1041,) reigned weakly and ingloriously for twenty-five years. The rebellious attempts of Godwin, Earl of Wessex, aimed at nothing less than an usurpation of the crown; and, on his death, his son Harold, cherishing secretly the same views of ambition, had the address to secure to his interest a very formidable party in the kingdom. Edward, to defeat these views, bequeathed the crown to William Duke of Normandy, a Prince whose great abilities and personal prowess had rendered his name illustrious over Europe.

13. On the death of Edward the Confessor, 1066, the usurper Harold, took possession of

the throne, which the intrepid Norman determined immediately to reclaim as his inheritance of right. He made the most formidable preparations, aided in this age of romantic enterprise by many of the Sovereign Princes, and a vast body of the nobility, from the different continental kingdoms. A Norwegian fleet of 300 sail entered the Humber, and, disembarking their troops, were, after one successful engagement, defeated by the English army in the interest of Harold. William landed his army on the coast of Sussex, to the amount of 60,000; and the English, under Harold, flushed with their recent success, hastily advanced to meet him, imprudently resolving to venture all on one decisive battle. The total route and discomfitnre of the English army in the field of Hastings, (14th October 1066,) and the death of Harold, after some fruitless attempts of further resistance, put William Duke of Normandy in possession of the throne of England.

XIII.

OF THE GOVERNMENT, LAWS, AND MANNERS OF THE ANGLO-SAXONS.

1. THE government, laws, and manners of the Anglo-Saxons have become the subject of enquiry to modern writers, as being supposed to have had their influence in the formation of the British constitution. The government of the Saxons was the same with that of all the ancient Germanic nations, and they naturally retained in their new settlement in Britain a policy similar to their accustomed usages. Their subordination was chiefly a military one, the King having no more authority than what belonged to the general, or military leader. There was no strict rule of succession to the throne; for although the King was generally chosen from the family of the last Prince, the choice usually fell on the person of the best capacity for government. In some instances the destination of

the last Sovereign regulated the choice. We know very little of the nature of the Anglo-Saxon government, or of the distinct rights of the Sovereign and people.

2. One institution common to all the kingdoms of the Heptarchy was the Wittenagemot, or assembly of the wise men, whose consent was requisite for enacting laws, and ratifying the chief acts of public administration. The bishops and abbots formed a part of this assembly, as did the aldermen, or earls, and governors of counties. The Wites, or wise men, are discriminated from the prelates and nobility, and have by some been supposed to have been the representatives of the commons. But we hear nothing of election or representation in those periods, and we must therefore presume that they were merely landholders, or men of considerable estate, who, from their weight and consequence in the country, were held entitled, without any election, to take a share in the public deliberations.

3. The Anglo-Saxon government was extremely aristocratical; the regal authority being very limited, the rights of the people little

known or regarded, and the nobility possessing much uncontrolled and lawless rule over their dependents. The offices of government were hereditary in their families, and they commanded the whole military force of their respective provinces. So strict was the *clientela* between these nobles and their vassals, that the murder of a vassal was compensated by a fine paid to his lord.

There were three ranks of the people, the nobles, the free, and the slaves. The nobles were either the King's thanes, who held their lands directly from the Sovereign, or lesser thanés, who held lands from the former. One law of Athelstan declared, that a merchant who had made three voyages on his own account was entitled to the dignity of thane; another decreed the same rank to a ceorle, or husbandman, who was able to purchase five hides of land, and had a chapel, a kitchen, a hall, and a bell. The ceorles, or freemen of the lower rank, occupied the farms of the thanes, for which they paid rent, and they were removable at the pleasure of their lord. The slaves or villains were either employed in domestic purposes,

or in cultivating the lands. A master was fined for the murder of his slave; and, if he mutilated him, the slave recovered his freedom.

5. Under this aristocratical government there were some traces of the ancient Germanic democracy. The courts of the decennary, the hundred, and the county, were a considerable restraint on the power of the nobles. In the county-courts the freeholders met twice a-year to determine appeals by the majority of suffrages. The alderman presided in those courts, but had no vote: he received a third of the fines, the remaining two-thirds devolving to the King, which was a great part of the royal revenue. Pecuniary fines were the ordinary atonement for every species of crime, and the modes of proof were the ordeal by fire or water, or by compurgators. (See *supra*, Part II. Sect. V. § 7.)

6. As to the military force, the expense of defending the state lay equally on all the land, every five hides or ploughs being taxed to furnish a soldier. There were 243,600 hides in England, consequently the ordinary military force consisted of 48,720 men.

7. The King's revenue, besides the fines imposed by the courts, consisted partly of his demesnes of property-lands, which were extensive, and partly in imposts on boroughs and sea-ports. The Danegelt was a tax imposed by the states, either for payment of tribute exacted by the Danes, or for defending the kingdom against them. By the custom of gavelkind, the land was divided equally among all the male children of the deceased proprietor. Book-land was that which was held by charter, and folk-land, what was held by tenants removable at pleasure.

8. The Anglo-Saxons were behind the Normans in every point of civilisation; and the conquest was therefore to them a real advantage, as it led to material improvement in arts, science, government, and laws.

XIV.

STATE OF EUROPE DURING THE TENTH, ELEVENTH, AND TWELFTH CENTURIES.

1. FRANCE, from the extent and splendour of its dominion under Charlemagne, had dwindled to a shadow under his weak posterity. At the end of the Carlovingian period, France comprehended neither Normandy, Dauphiné, nor Provence. On the death of Lewis V. (Fainéant,) the crown ought to have devolved on his uncle, Charles of Brabant, as the last male of the race of Charlemagne; but Hugh Capet, Lord of Picardy and Champagne, the most powerful of the French nobles, was elected Sovereign by the voice of his brother peers, A.D. 987. The kingdom, torn by parties, suffered much domestic misery under the reign of Hugh, and that of his successor Robert, who was the victim of Papal tyranny, for daring to marry a distant cousin without the dispensation of the church.

2. The prevailing passion of the times was pilgrimage and chivalrous enterprise. In this career of adventure the Normans most remarkably distinguished themselves. In 983, they relieved the Prince of Salerno, by expelling the Saracens from his territory. They did a similar service to Pope Benedict VIII. and the Duke of Capua; while another band of their countrymen fought first against the Greeks, and afterwards against the Popes, always selling their services to those who best rewarded them. William Fierabras, and his brothers, Humphrey, Robert, and Richard, kept the Pope a prisoner for a year at Benevento, and forced the court of Rome to yield Capua to Richard, and Apulia and Calabria to Robert, with the investiture of Sicily if he should gain the country from the Saracens. In 1101, Rogero the Norman completed the conquest of Sicily, of which the Popes continued to be the lords paramount.

3. The north of Europe was in those periods extremely barbarous. Russia received the Christian religion in the eighth century. Sweden, after its conversion in the ninth century, relapsed into idolatry, as did Hungary

and Bohemia. The Constantinopolitan empire defended its frontiers with difficulty against the Bulgarians on the west, and against the Turks and Arabians on the east and north.

4. In Italy, excepting the territory of the Popedom, the principalities of the independent nobles, and the states of Venice and Genoa, the greatest part of the country was now in the possession of the Normans. Venice and Genoa were rising gradually to great opulence from commerce. Venice was for some ages tributary to the Emperors of Germany. In the tenth century its Doge assumed the title of Duke of Dalmatia, of which the republic had acquired the property by conquest, as well as of Istria, Spalatro, Ragusa, and Narenza.

5. Spain was chiefly possessed by the Moors; the Christians retaining only about a fourth of the kingdom, namely, Asturia, part of Castile and Catalonia, Navarre, and Arragon. Portugal was likewise occupied by the Moors. Their capital was Cordova, the seat of luxury and magnificence. In the tenth century the Moorish dominions were split among a num-

ber of petty sovereigns, who were constantly at war with each other; but such, unfortunately, was likewise the situation of the Christian part of the kingdom; and it was no uncommon policy for the Christian Princes to form alliances with the Moors against each other. Besides these, the country abounded with independent lords, who made war their profession, and performed the office of champions in deciding the quarrels of princes, or enlisting themselves in their service, with all their vassals and attendants. Of these, termed *Cavalleros andantes*, or knights-errant, the most distinguished was Rodrigo the Cid, who undertook for his Sovereign, Alphonso King of Old Castile, to conquer the kingdom of New Castile, and achieved it with success, obtaining the government of Valencia as the reward of his services.

6. The contentions between the Imperial and Papal powers make a distinguished figure in those ages. Henry III. vindicated the Imperial right to fill the chair of St. Peter, and nominated three successive Popes, without the intervention of a council of the church. But in the minority of his son

Henry IV., this right was frequently interrupted, and Alexander II. kept his seat, though the Emperor named another in his place. It was the lot of this Emperor to experience the utmost extent of Papal insolence and tyranny. After a spirited contest with Gregory VII., in which the Pope was twice his prisoner, and the Emperor as often excommunicated and deposed, Henry fell at length the victim of ecclesiastical vengeance. Urban II., a successor of Gregory, prompted the two sons of Henry to rebel against their father; and his misfortunes were terminated by imprisonment and death in 1106. The same contest went on under a succession of Popes and Emperors, but ended commonly in favour of the former. Frederic I. (Barbarossa), a prince of high spirit, after an indignant denial of the supremacy of Alexander III., and a refusal of the customary homage, was at length compelled to kiss his feet, and appease His Holiness, by a large cession of territory. Pope Celestinus kicked off the Imperial crown of Henry VI. while doing homage on his knees, but made amends for this insolence by the gift of Naples and

Sicily, from which Henry had expelled the Normans. These territories now became an appanage of the empire, 1194. — The succeeding Popes rose on the pretensions of their predecessors, till at length Innocent III., in the beginning of the thirteenth century, established the powers of the Popedom on a settled basis, and obtained a positive acknowledgment of the Papal supremacy, or the right *principaliter et finaliter* to confer the Imperial crown. It was the same Pope Innocent whom we shall presently see the disposer of the crown of England in the reign of the tyrant John.

XV.

HISTORY OF ENGLAND IN THE ELEVENTH, TWELFTH, AND PART OF THE THIRTEENTH CENTURIES.

1. THE consequence of the battle of Hastings was the submission of all England to William the Conqueror. The character of

this prince was spirited, haughty, and tyrannical, yet not without a portion of the generous affections. He disgusted his English subjects by the strong partiality he showed to his Norman followers, preferring them to all offices of trust and dignity. A conspiracy arose from these discontents, which William defeated, and avenged with signal rigour and cruelty. He determined henceforward to treat the English as a conquered people; a policy which involved his reign in perpetual commotions, which, while they robbed him of all peace of mind, aggravated the tyranny of his disposition. To his own children he owed the severest of his troubles. His eldest son Robert rose in rebellion, to wrest from him the sovereignty of Maine; and his foreign subjects took part with the rebel. William led against them an army of the English, and was on the point of perishing in fight by his son's hand. Philip I. of France had aided this rebellion, which was avenged by William, who carried havoc and devastation into the heart of his kingdom, but was killed in the enterprise by a fall from his horse, 1087. He bequeathed England to William his second

son; to Robert he left Normandy; and to Henry, his youngest son, the property of his mother Matilda.

2. William the Conqueror introduced into England the feudal law, dividing the whole kingdom, except the royal demesnes, into baronies, and bestowing the most of these, under the tenure of military service, on his Norman followers. By the forest laws, he reserved to himself the exclusive privilege of killing game all over the kingdom; a restriction resented by his subjects above every other mark of servitude. Preparatory to the introduction of the feudal tenures, he planned and accomplished a general survey of all the lands in the kingdom, with a distinct specification of their extent, nature, value, names of their proprietors, and an enumeration of every class of inhabitants who lived on them. This most valuable record, called *Doomsday-book*, is preserved in the English Exchequer, and is now printed.

3. William II. (Rufus) inherited the vices without any of the virtues of his father. His reign is distinguished by no event of importance; and, after the defeat of one conspiracy

in its outset, presents nothing but a dull career of unresisted despotism. After a reign of thirteen years he was killed when hunting, by the random shot of an arrow, 1100. The crown of England should have devolved on his elder brother Robert; but his absence on a crusade in Palestine made way for the unopposed succession of his younger brother Henry, who, by his marriage with Matilda, the niece of Edgar Atheling, united the last remnant of the Saxon with the Norman line. With the most criminal ambition he now invaded his brother's dominions of Normandy; and Robert, on his return, was defeated in battle, and detained for life a prisoner in England. The crimes of Henry were expiated by his misfortunes. His only son was drowned in his passage from Normandy. His daughter Matilda, married first to the Emperor Henry V. and afterwards to Geoffrey Plantagenet of Anjou, was destined to be his successor; but the popularity of his nephew Stephen, son of the Count of Blois, defeated this intention. Henry I. died in Normandy, after a reign of thirty-five years, A.D. 1135; and, in spite of his destination to Matilda, Stephen seized the

vacant throne. The party of Matilda, headed by her natural brother, the Earl of Gloucester, engaged, defeated, and made Stephen prisoner. Matilda, in her turn, mounted the throne; but, unpopular from the tyranny of her disposition, she was solemnly deposed by the prevailing party of her rival, and Stephen once more restored. He found, however, in Henry Plantagenet, the son of Matilda, a more formidable competitor. Of a noble and intrepid spirit, while yet a boy, he resolved to reclaim his hereditary crown; and, landing in England, won by his prowess, and the favour of a just cause, a great part of the kingdom to his interest. By treaty with Stephen, who was allowed to reign for life, he secured the succession at his death, which soon after ensued, 1154.

4. Henry II., a prince in every sense deserving of the throne, began his reign with the reformation of all the abuses of the government of his predecessors; revoking all impolitic grants, abolishing partial immunities, regulating the administration of justice, and establishing the freedom of the towns by

charters, which are at this day the basis of the national liberty. Happy in the affections of his people, and powerful in the vast extent of additional territory he enjoyed on the continent in right of his father and of his wife, the heiress of a great portion of France, his reign had every promise of prosperity and happiness; but, from one fatal source, these pleasing prospects were all destroyed. Thomas Becket was raised by Henry from obscurity to the office of chancellor of England. On the vacancy of the see of Canterbury, the King, desirous of his aid in the correction of ecclesiastical abuses, conferred the primacy on his favourite; and the arrogant Becket availed himself of that authority to abase the prerogative of his sovereign, and exalt the spiritual power above the crown. It was disputed whether a priest could be tried for a murder, and punished by the civil court. It was determined in the affirmative by the council of Clarendon, against the opinion of Becket. Pope Alexander III. annulled the decree of the council; and Becket, who took part with the Pope, was deprived by Henry of all his dignities and estates. He avenged himself

by the excommunication of the King's ministers; and Henry, in return, prohibited all intercourse with the See of Rome. At length both parties found it their interest to come to a good understanding. Becket was restored to favour, and reinstated in his primacy, when the increasing insolence of his demeanour drew from the King some hasty expressions of indignation, which his servants interpreted into a sentence of proscription, and, trusting that the deed would be grateful to their master, murdered the prelate while in the act of celebrating vespers at the altar. For this shocking action Henry expressed the regret which he sincerely felt, and the Pope indulgently granted his pardon, on the assurance of his dutiful obedience to the Holy Church.

5. The most important event of the reign of Henry II. was the conquest of Ireland. The Irish, an early civilised people, and among the first of the nations of the West who embraced the Christian religion, were, by frequent invasions of the Danes, and their own domestic commotions, replunged into barbarism for many ages. In the

twelfth century the kingdom consisted of five separate sovereignties, Ulster, Leinster, Munster, Meath, and Connaught; but these were subdivided among an infinite number of petty chiefs, owning a very weak allegiance to their respective sovereigns. Dermot Macmorrogh, expelled from his kingdom of Leinster for a rape on the daughter of the King of Meath, sought protection from Henry, and engaged to become his feudatory, if he should recover his kingdom by the aid of the English. Henry empowered his subjects to invade Ireland: and, while Strongbow Earl of Pembroke and his followers were laying waste the country, landed in the island himself in 1172, and received the submission of a great number of the independent chiefs. Roderick O'Connor, Prince of Connaught, whom the Irish elected nominal Sovereign of all the provinces, resisted for three years the arms of Henry, but finally acknowledged his dominion by a solemn embassy to the King at Windsor. The terms of the submission were, an annual tribute of every tenth hide of land, to be applied for the support of government, and an obligation

of allegiance to the crown of England; on which conditions the Irish should retain their possessions, and Roderick his kingdom; except the territory of the Pale, or that part which the English barons had subdued before the arrival of Henry.

6. Henry divided Ireland into counties, appointed sheriffs in each, and introduced the laws of England into the territory of the Pale; the rest of the kingdom being regulated by their ancient laws, till the reign of Edward I., when, at the request of the nation, the English laws were extended to the whole kingdom; and in the first Irish Parliament, which was held in the same reign, Sir John Wogan presided as deputy of the Sovereign. From that time, for some centuries, there was little intercourse between the kingdoms; nor was the island considered as fully subdued till the reign of Elizabeth and of her successor James I.

7. The latter part of the reign of Henry II. was clouded by domestic misfortune. His children, Henry, Richard, Geoffrey, and John, instigated by their unnatural mother, rose in rebellion, and with the aid of

Lewis VII. King of France, prepared to dethrone their father. While opposing them with spirit on the continent, his kingdom was invaded by the Scots under William (the Lyon). He hastened back to England, defeated the Scots, and made their King his prisoner. Two of his sons, Henry and Geoffrey, expiated their offences by an early death; but Richard, once reconciled, was again seduced from his allegiance, and, in league with the King of France, plundered his father's continental dominions. The spirit of Henry was unequal to his domestic misfortunes, and he died of a broken heart in the 58th year of his age, 1189, an ornament to the English throne, and a prince surpassing all his contemporaries in the valuable qualities of a sovereign. To him England owed her first permanent improvements in arts, in laws, in government, and in civil liberty.

8. Richard I. (Coeur de Lion), immediately on his accession, embarked for the Holy Land, on a crusade against the Infidels, after plundering his subjects of an immense sum of money to defray the charges of the enterprise.

Forming a league with Philip Augustus of France, the two monarchs joined their forces, and, acting for some time in concert, were successful in the taking of Acra or Ptolemais; but Philip, jealous of his rival's glory, soon returned to France, while Richard had the honour of defeating the heroic Saladin in the battle of Ascalon, with prodigious slaughter of his enemies. He prepared now for the siege of Jerusalem; but, finding his army wasted with famine and fatigue, he was compelled to end the war by a truce with Saladin, in which he obtained a free passage to the Holy Land for every Christian pilgrim. Wrecked in his voyage homeward, and travelling in disguise through Germany, Richard was seized, and detained in prison, by command of the Emperor Henry VI. The King of France ungenerously opposed his release, as did his unnatural brother John, from selfish ambition; but he was at length ransomed by his subjects for the sum of 150,000 merks, and, after an absence of nine years, returned to his dominions. His traitorous brother was pardoned after some submission; and Richard employed the short residue of his reign in a spirited revenge

against his rival, Philip. A truce, however, was concluded, by the mediation of Rome; and Richard was soon after killed, while storming the castle of one of his rebellious vassals in the Limosin. He died in the tenth year of his reign, and forty-second of his age, 1199.

9. John (Lackland) succeeded to the throne on the death of his brother, but found a competitor in his nephew Arthur, the son of Geoffrey, supported by Philip of France. War was, of course, renewed with that country: but Arthur, with fatal confidence, throwing himself into the hands of his uncle, was removed by poison or the sword; a deed which, joined to the known tyranny of his character, rendered John the detestation of his subjects. He was stripped by Philip of his continental dominions, and he made the Pope his enemy by an avaricious attack on the treasures of the church. After an ineffectual menace of vengeance, Innocent III. pronounced a sentence of interdict against the kingdom, which put a stop to all the ordinances of religion, to baptism, and the burial of the dead. He next excommunicated John, and absolved his subjects from

their allegiance; and he finally deposed him, and made a gift of the kingdom to Philip. John, intimidated into submission, declared himself the Pope's vassal, swore allegiance on his knees to the Papal legate, and agreed to hold his kingdom tributary to the Holy See. On these conditions, which insured the universal hatred and contempt of his people, he made his peace with the Church. It was natural that his subjects, thus trampled upon and sold, should vindicate their rights. The barons of the kingdom assembled, and binding themselves by oath to an union of measures, they resolutely demanded from the King a ratification of a charter of privileges granted by Henry I. John appealed to the Pope, who, in support of his vassal, prohibited the confederacy of the barons as rebellious. These were only the more resolute in their purpose, and the sword was their last resource. At length John was compelled to yield to their demands, and signed, at Runymede, 19th June, 1215, that solemn charter, which is the foundation and bulwark of English liberty, *Magna Charta.*

10. By this great charter, 1. The freedom of election to benefices was secured to the clergy; 2. The fines to the overlord on the succession of vassals were regulated; 3. No aids or subsidies were allowed to be levied from the subject, unless in a few special cases, without the consent of the great council; 4. The Crown shall not seize the lands of a baron for a debt, while he has personal property sufficient to discharge it; 5. All the privileges granted by the King to his vassals shall be communicated by them to their inferior vassals; 6. One weight and one measure shall be used throughout the kingdom; 7. All men shall pass from and return to the realm at their pleasure; 8. All cities and boroughs shall preserve their ancient liberties; 9. The estate of every freeman shall be regulated by his will, and, if he die intestate, by the law; 10. The King's court shall be stationary and open to all; 11. Every freeman shall be fined only in proportion to his offence, and no fine shall be imposed to his utter ruin; 12. No peasant shall, by a fine, be deprived of his instruments of husbandry; 13. No person shall be tried on suspicion alone, but on the

evidence of lawful witnesses; 14. No person shall be tried or punished but by the judgment of his peers and the law of the land.

11. John granted at the same time the *Charta de Foresta,* which abolished the royal privilege of killing game over all the kingdom, and restored to the lawful proprietors their woods and forests, which they were now allowed to enclose and use at their pleasure. As compulsion alone had produced these concessions, John was determined to disregard them, and a foreign force was brought into the kingdom to reduce the barons into submission. These applied for aid to France, and Philip sent his son Lewis to England with an army; and such was the people's hatred of their sovereign, that they swore allegiance to this foreigner. At this critical period John died at Newark, 1216, and an instant change ensued. His son Henry III., a boy of nine years of age, was crowned at Bristol, and his uncle the Earl of Pembroke appointed protector of the realm; the disaffected barons returned to their allegiance, the people hailed their Sove-

reign, and Lewis with his army, after an ineffectual struggle, made peace with the protector, and evacuated the kingdom.

XVI.

STATE OF GERMANY AND ITALY IN THE THIRTEENTH CENTURY.

1. FREDERICK II., son of Henry VI., was elected Emperor on the resignation of Otho IV., 1212. At this period Naples, Sicily, and Lombardy, were all appendages of the empire; and the contentions between the Imperial and Papal powers divided the states of Italy into factions, known by the name of Guelphs and Ghibellines; the former maintaining the supremacy of the Pope, the latter that of the Emperor. The opposition of Frederick to four successive Popes was avenged by excommunication and deposition; yet he kept possession of his throne, and vindicated his authority with great spirit. Frequent attempts were made against

his life, by assassination and poison, which he openly attributed to Papal resentment. On his death, 1250, the splendour of the empire was for many years obscured. It was a prey to incessant factions and civil war, the fruit of contested claims of sovereignty; yet the Popes gained nothing by its disorders; for the troubles of Italy were equally hostile to their ambition. We have seen the turbulent state of England; France was equally weak and anarchical; Spain ravaged by the contests of the Moors and Christians. Yet, distracted as appears the situation of Europe, one great project gave a species of union to this discordant mass, of which we now proceed to give account.

XVII.

THE CRUSADES, OR HOLY WARS.

1. The Turks or Turcomans, a race of Tartars from the regions of Mount Taurus and Imaus, invaded the dominions of Moscovy in the eleventh century, and came down upon the banks of the Caspian. The Caliphs employed Turkish mercenaries; and they acquired the reputation of able soldiers in the wars that took place on occasion of the contested Caliphate. The Caliphs of Bagdat, the Abassidae, were deprived, by their rival Caliphs of the race of Omar, of Syria, Egypt, and Africa; and the Turks stripped of their dominions both the Abassidae and Ommiades. Bagdat was taken by the Turks, and the empire of the Caliphs overthrown, in 1055; and these princes, from temporal monarchs, became now the supreme Pontiffs of the Mahometan faith, as the Popes of the Christian. At the time of the first

crusade, in the end of the eleventh century, Arabia was governed by a Turkish Sultan, as were Persia and the greater portion of Lesser Asia. The eastern empire was thus abridged of its Asiatic territory, and had lost a great part of its dominions in Europe. It retained, however, Greece, Macedonia, Thrace, and Illyria; and Constantinople itself was populous, opulent, and luxurious. Palestine was in the possession of the Turks; and its capital, Jerusalem, fallen from its ancient consequence and splendour, was yet held in respect by its conquerors as a holy city, and constantly attracted the resort of Mahometans to the mosque of Omar, as of Christian pilgrims to the sepulchre of our Saviour.

2. Peter the Hermit, a native of Amiens, on his return from this pilgrimage, complained in loud terms of the grievances which the Christians suffered from the Turks; and Urban II. pitched on this enthusiast as a fit person to commence the execution of a grand design which the Popes had long entertained, of arming all Christendom, and exterminating the Infidels from the Holy Land. The project was opened in two general councils held

at Placentia and Clermont. The French possessed more ardour than the Italians; and an immense multitude of ambitious and disorderly nobles, with all their dependants, eager for enterprise and plunder, and assured of eternal salvation, immediately took the cross. Peter the Hermit led 80,000 under his banners, and they began their march towards the East in 1095. Their progress was marked by rapine and hostility in every Christian country through which they passed; and the army of the Hermit, on its arrival at Constantinople was wasted down to 20,000. The Emperor Alexius Comnenus, to whom the crusaders behaved with the most provoking insolence and folly, conducted himself with admirable moderation and good sense. He hastened to get rid of this disorderly multitude, by furnishing them with every aid which they required, and cheerfully lent his ships to transport them across the Bosphorus. The Sultan Solyman met them on the plain of Nicea, and cut to pieces the army of the Hermit. A new host, in the mean time, arrived at Constantinople, led by more illustrious commanders; by Godfrey of Bouillon Duke

of Brabant, Raymond Count of Thoulouse, Robert of Normandy, son of William King of England, Bohemond, son of Robert Guiscard, the conqueror of Sicily, and other princes of high reputation. To these, who amounted to some hundred thousands, Alexius manifested the same prudent conduct, to accelerate their departure. The Turks, overpowered by numbers, were twice defeated, and the crusaders, pursuing their successes, penetrated at length to Jerusalem, which, after a siege of six weeks, they took by storm, and with savage fury massacred the whole of its Mahometan and Jewish inhabitants, A.D. 1099. Godfrey was hailed King of Jerusalem, but was obliged soon after to cede his kingdom to the Pope's legate. The crusaders divided Syria and Palestine, and formed four separate states, which weakened their power. The Turks began to recover strength; and the Christian states of Asia soon found it necessary to solicit aid from Europe.

3. The second crusade set out from the West in 1146, to the amount of 200,000, French, Germans, and Italians, led by Hugh,

brother to Philip I. of France. These met with the same fate which attended the army of Peter the Hermit. The garrison of Jerusalem was at this time so weak, that it became necessary to embody and arm the monks for its defence, and hence arose the military orders of the Knights Templars and Hospitallers, and soon after the Teutonic, from the German pilgrims. Meantime Pope Eugenius III. employed St. Bernard to preach up a new crusade in France, which was headed by its sovereign Louis VII. (the Young), who, in conjunction with Conrad III. Emperor of Germany, mustered jointly 300,000 men. The Germans were cut to pieces by the Sultan of Iconium; the French were totally defeated near Laodicea; and the two monarchs, after much disaster, returned with shame to their dominions.

4. The illustrious Saladin, nephew of the Sultan of Egypt, formed the design of recovering Palestine from the Christians; and besieging Jerusalem, he took the city, and made prisoner its sovereign Guy of Lusignan. Pope Clement III. alarmed at the successes of the Infidels, began to stir up a new crusade from

France, England, and Germany; and the armies of each country were headed by their respective sovereigns, Philip Augustus, Richard I. and Frederick Barbarossa. In this third crusade the emperor Frederick died in Asia, and his army, by repeated defeats, mouldered to nothing. The English and French were more successful; they besieged and took Ptolemais; but Richard and Philip quarrelled from jealousy of each other's glory, and the French monarch returned in disgust to his country. Richard nobly sustained the contest with Saladin, whom he defeated near Ascalon; but his army was reduced by famine and fatigue; and concluding a treaty, at least not dishonourable, with his enemy, he was forced at length to escape from Palestine with a single ship. (See *supra,* Sect. XV. § 8.) Saladin, revered even by the Christians, died 1195.

5. A fourth crusade was fitted out in 1202, under Baldwin Count of Flanders, of which the object was not the extirpation of the Infidels, but the destruction of the empire of the East. Constantinople, embroiled by civil war

and revolution, from disputed claims to the sovereignty, was besieged and taken by the crusaders; and Baldwin, their chief, was elected Emperor, to be within a few months dethroned and murdered. The Imperial dominions were shared among the principal leaders; and the Venetians, who had lent their ships for the expedition, got the isle of Candia (anciently Crete) for their reward. Alexius, of the Imperial family of the Commeni, founded a new sovereignty in Asia, which he termed the empire of Trebizond. The object of a fifth crusade was to lay waste Egypt, in revenge for an attack on Palestine by its Sultan Saphadin. Partial success and ultimate ruin was the issue of this expedition, as of all the preceding.

6. At this period, 1227, a great revolution took place in Asia. Gengiskan with his Tartars broke down from the North upon Persia and Syria, and massacred indiscriminately Turks, Jews, and Christians, who opposed them. The Christian Knights Templars, Hospitallers, and Teutonic, made a desperate but inffectual resistance; and Palestine must have been abandoned to these invaders, had

not its fate been for a while retarded by the last crusade under Lewis IX. of France. This prince, summoned, as he believed, by Heaven, after four years' preparation, set out for the Holy Land, with his Queen, his three brothers, and all the Knights of France. His army began their enterprise by an attack on Egypt, where, after some considerable successes, they were at length utterly defeated, and the French monarch, with two of his brothers, fell into the hands of the enemy. He purchased his liberty at an immense ransom, and, returning to France, reigned prosperously and wisely for thirteen years. But the same phrenzy again assailing him, he embarked on a crusade against the Moors in Africa, where his army was destroyed by a pestilence, and he himself became its victim, 1270. It is computed that, in the whole of the crusades to Palestine, two millions of Europeans were buried in the East.

7. *Effects of the Crusades.* — One consequence of the holy wars is supposed to have been the improvement of European manners; but the times immediately succeeding the crusades exhibit no such actual improvement.

Two centuries of barbarism and darkness elapsed between the termination of those enterprises and the fall of the Greek empire in 1453, the aera of the revival of letters, and the commencement of civilisation. A certain consequence of the crusades was the change of territorial property in all the feudal kingdoms, the sale of the estates of the nobles, and their division among a number of smaller proprietors. Hence the feudal aristocracy was weakened, and the lower classes began to acquire weight, and a spirit of independence. The towns, hitherto bound by a sort of vassalage to the nobles, began to purchase their immunity, acquired the right of electing their own magistrates, and were governed by their own municipal laws. — The church in some respects gained, and in others lost, by those enterprises. The Popes gained a more extended jurisdiction; but the fatal issue of those expeditions opened the eyes of the world to the selfish and interested motives which had prompted them, and weakened the sway of superstition. Many of the religious orders acquired an increase of wealth; but this was

balanced by the taxes imposed on the clergy. The coin was altered and debased in most of the kingdoms of Europe, from the scarcity of specie. The Jews were supposed to have hoarded and concealed it, and they became hence the victims of general persecution. The most substantial gainers by the crusades were the Italian states of Genoa, Pisa, and Venice, from the increased trade to the Levant for the supply of those immense armies. Venice, as we have seen, took an active concern, and obtained her share of the conquered territory.

The age of the crusades brought chivalry to its perfection, and gave rise to romantic fiction.

XVIII.

OF CHIVALRY AND ROMANCE.

1. CHIVALRY arose naturally from the condition of society in those ages in which it prevailed. Among the Germanic nations, the profession of arms was esteemed the sole employment that deserved the name of manly or honourable. The initiation of the youth to this profession was attended with peculiar solemnity and appropriate ceremonies. The chief of the tribe bestowed the sword and armour on his vassal, as a symbol of their being devoted to his service. In the progress of the feudal system, these vassals, in imitation of their chief, assumed the power of conferring arms on their sub-vassals, with a similar form of mysterious and pompous ceremonial. The candidate for knighthood underwent his preparatory fasts and vigils, and received on

his knees the *accollade* and benediction of his chief. Armed and caparisoned, he sallied forth in quest of adventure, which, whether just or not in its purpose, was ever esteemed honourable in proportion as it was perilous.

2. The high esteem of the female sex is characteristic of the Gothic manners. In those ages of barbarism, the castles of the greater barons were in miniature the courts of Sovereigns. The society of the ladies, who found only in such fortresses a security from outrage, polished the manners; and to protect the chastity and honour of the fair, was the best employ and highest merit of an accomplished knight. Romantic exploit had, therefore, always a tincture of gallantry:

It hath been through all ages ever seen,
That with the praise of arms and chivalry
The prize of beauty still hath joined been,
And that for reasons special privity;
For either doth on other much rely;
For he, me seems, most fit the fair to serve,
That can her best defend from villany;
And she most fit his service doth deserve
That fairest is, and from her faith will never swerve.

SPENSER'S FAIRY QUEEN.

3. To the passion for adventure and romantic love were added very high ideas of morality and religion; but, as the latter were ever subordinate to the former, we may presume more in favour of their refinement than of their purity. It was the pride of a knight to redress wrongs and injuries; but in that honourable employment he made small account of those he committed; and it was easy to expiate the greatest offences by a penance or a pilgrimage, which furnished only a new opportunity for adventurous exploit.

4. Chivalry, whether it began with the Moors or Normans, attained its perfection at the period of the crusades, which presented a noble object of adventure, and a boundless field for military glory. Few, it is true, returned from those desperate enterprises, but those few had a high reward in the admiration of their countrymen. The bards and romancers sung their praises, and recorded their exploits, with a thousand circumstances of fabulous embellishment.

5. The earliest of the old romances (so termed from the Romance language, a mixture of the Frank and Latin, in which they

were written) appeared about the middle of the twelfth century, the period of the second crusade. But those more ancient compositions did not record contemporary events, whose known truth would have precluded all liberty of fiction or exaggeration. Geoffrey of Monmouth, and the author who assumed the name of Archbishop Turpin, had free scope to their fancy, by celebrating the deeds of Arthur and the Knights of the Round Table, and the exploits of Charlemagne and his Twelve Peers; and from the fruitful stock of those first romances sprung a numerous offspring, equally wild and extravagant.

6. Philosophers have analysed the pleasure arising from works of fiction, and have endeavoured, by various hypotheses, to account for the interest we take in the description of an event or scene which we know to be utterly impossible. We may account thus simply for the phaenomenon: Every narration is in some degree attended with a dramatic deception. We enter for the time into the situation of the persons concerned. Adopting their passions and their feelings, we lose for a moment all sense of the absurdity of their cause

whilst we see the agents themselves hold it for reasonable and adequate. The most incredulous sceptic may sympathise strongly with the feelings of Hamlet at the sight of his father's spectre.

7. Thus powerfully affected as we are by sympathy, even against the conviction of our reason, how much greater must have been the effect of such works of the imagination in those days, when popular superstition gave full credit to the reality, or at least the possibility, of all that they described! And hence we must censure, as both unnecessary and improbable, that theory of Dr. Hurd, which accounts for all the wildness of the old romances, on the supposition that their fictions were entirely allegorical; which explains the giants and savages into the oppressive feudal lords and their barbarous dependants; as M. Mallet construes the serpents and dragons which guarded the enchanted castles, into their winding walls, fossés, and battlements. It were sufficient to say, that many of those old romances are inexplicable by allegory. They were received by the popular belief as truths, and even their contrivers believed in

the possibility of the scenes and actions they described. In latter ages, and in the wane of superstition, yet while it still retained a powerful influence, the poets adopted allegory as a vehicle of moral instruction: and to this period belong those poetical romances which bear an allegorical explanation; as the *Fairy Queen* of Spenser, the *Orlando* of Ariosto, and the *Gierusalemme Liberata* of Tasso.

8. In more modern times the taste for romantic composition declined with popular credulity; and the fastidiousness of philosophy affected to treat all supernatural fiction with contempt. But it was at length perceived that this refinement had cut off a source of very high mental enjoyment. The public taste now took a new turn; and this moral revolution is at present tending to its extreme. We are gone back to the nursery to listen to tales of hobgoblins; a change which we may safely prognosticate can be of no long duration.

THE TANJORE MAHARAJA SERFOGI'S SARASWATI MAHAL.

XIX.

STATE OF EUROPE IN THE THIRTEENTH AND FOURTEENTH CENTURIES.

1. CONSTANTINOPLE, taken in 1202 by the crusaders, was possessed only for a short time by its conquerors. It was governed by French Emperors for the space of sixty years, and was taken by the Greeks, in 1261, under Michael Palaeologus, who, by imprisoning and putting out the eyes of his pupil Theodore Lascaris, secured to himself the sovereignty.

2. Germany was governed in the beginning of the thirteenth century by Frederick II. who paid homage to the Pope for the kingdom of Naples and Sicily, possessed by his son Conrad, and afterwards by his brother Manfred, who usurped the crown, in violation of the right of his nephew Conradin. Pope Clement IV. jealous of the dominion of the Imperial family, gave the investiture of

Naples and Sicily to Charles of Anjou, brother of Lewis IX. of France, who defeated and put to death his competitors. The Sicilians revenged this act of usurpation and cruelty by the murder, in one night, of every Frenchman in the island. This shocking massacre, termed the *Sicilian Vespers*, happened on Easter Sunday, 1282. It was followed by every evil that comes in the train of civil war and revolution.

3. The beginning of the thirteenth century had been signalised by a new species of crusade. The Albigenses, inhabitants of Alby in the Pays de Vaud, were bold enough to dispute many of the tenets of the Catholic church, as judging them contrary to the doctrines of Scripture. Innocent III. established a holy commission at Thoulouse, with power to try and punish these heretics. The Count of Thoulouse opposed this persecution, and was, for the punishment of his offence, compelled by the Pope to assist in a crusade against his own vassals. Simon de Montfort was the leader of this pious enterprise, which was marked by the most atrocious cruelties. The benefits of the holy commission were

judged by the Popes to be so great, that it became from that time a permanent establishment, known by the name of *the Inquisition.*

4. The rise of the house of Austria may be dated from 1274, when Rodolphus of Hapsbourg, a Swiss baron, was elected Emperor of Germany. He owed his elevation to the jealousies of the electoral princes, who could not agree in the choice of any one of themselves. The King of Bohemia, to whom Rodolphus had been steward of the household, could ill brook the supremacy of his former dependant; and refusing him the customary homage for his Germanic possessions, Rodolphus stripped him of Austria, which has ever since remained in the family of its conqueror.

5. The Italian states of Venice, Genoa, and Pisa, were at this time flourishing and opulent, while most of the kingdoms of Europe (if we except England under Edward I.) were exhausted, feeble, and disorderly. A dawning of civil liberty began to appear in France under Philip IV. (*le Bel*), who summoned the third estate to the national assemblies, which had hitherto consisted of the nobility and clergy, 1308. It was the same

prince who established perpetual courts of judicature in France, under the name of Parliaments. Over these the parliament of Paris possessed a jurisdiction by appeal; but it was not till latter times that it assumed any authority in matters of state.

6. The parliament of England had before this aera begun to assume its present constitution. The Commons, or the representatives of counties and boroughs, were first called to parliament by Henry III.; before that time, this assembly consisted only of the greater barons and clergy. But of the rise and progress of the constitution of England we shall afterwards treat more particularly in a separate section.

7. The spirit of the popedom, zealous in the maintenance and extension of its prerogatives, continued much the same in the thirteenth and fourteenth, as we have seen it in the three preceding centuries. Philip the Fair had subjected his clergy to bear their share of the public taxes, and prohibited all contributions to be levied by the Pope in his dominions. This double offence was highly resented by Boniface VIII., who expressed his indig-

nation by a sentence of excommunication and interdict, and a solemn transference of the kingdom of France to the Emperor Albert. Philip, in revenge, sent his general Nogaret to Rome, who threw the Pope into prison. The French, however, were overpowered by the Papal troops; and the death of Boniface put an end to the quarrel.

8. It is less easy to justify the conduct of Philip the Fair to the Knights Templars than his behaviour to Pope Boniface. The whole of this order had incurred his resentment, from suspicion of harbouring treasonable designs. He had influence with Clement V. to procure a papal bull, warranting their extirpation from all the Christian kingdoms: and this infamous proscription was carried into effect all over Europe. These unfortunate men were solemnly tried, not for their real offence, but for pretended impieties and idolatrous practices, and committed to the flames, 1309—1312.

XX.

REVOLUTION OF SWITZERLAND.

1. THE beginning of the fourteenth century was distinguished by the revolution of Switzerland, and the rise of the Helvetic republic. The Emperor Rodolphus of Hapsbourg was hereditary Sovereign of several of the Swiss Cantons, and governed his states with much equity and moderation; but his successor Albert, a tyrannical prince, formed the design of annexing the whole of the provinces to his dominion, and erecting them into a principality for one of his sons. The cantons of Schewitz, Ury, and Underwald, which had always resisted the authority of Austria, combined to assert their freedom; and a small army of 400 or 500 men defeated an immense host of the Austrians in the pass of Morgate, 1315. The rest of the cantons by degrees joined the association, and with invincible perseverance,

after sixty pitched battles with their enemies, they won and secured their dear-bought liberty.

2. *Constitution of Switzerland.* — The thirteen cantons were united by a solemn treaty, which stipulated the proportional succours to be furnished by each in the case of foreign hostility, and the measures to be followed for securing the union of the states, and accommodating domestic differences. With respect to its internal government and economy, each canton was independent. Of some the constitution was monarchical, and of others republican. All matters touching the general league were transacted either by letters sent to Zurich, and thence officially circulated to all the cantons, or by conferences. The general diet, where two deputies attended from each canton, was held once a-year, the first deputy of Zurich presiding. The Catholic and Protestant cantons likewise held their separate diets on occasional emergencies.

3. The Swiss, when at peace, employed their troops for hire in foreign service, judg-

ing it a wise policy to keep alive the military spirit of the nation; and the armies thus employed have been equally distinguished for their courage and fidelity. The industry and economy of the Swiss are proverbial; and their country supports a most abundant population, from the zealous promotion of agriculture and manufactures.

XXI.

STATE OF EUROPE (CONTINUED) IN THE THIRTEENTH, FOURTEENTH, AND PART OF THE FIFTEENTH CENTURIES.

1. THE rival claims of superiority between the Popes and Emperors still continued. Henry VII., the successor of Albert, vindicated his right by the sword, triumphantly fought his way to Rome, where he was solemnly crowned, and imposed a tribute on all the states of Italy. His sudden death was suspected to be the consequence of Papal resentment. It was in his time that the seat

of the Popedom was transferred by Clement V. from Rome to Avignon, 1309, where it remained till 1377. The factions of Italy were the cause of this removal. Lewis of Bavaria, the successor of Henry, deprived and excommunicated by John XXII., revenged himself by deposing the Pope. This pontiff, who had originally been a cobler, surpassed the most of his predecessors in pride and tyranny. He kept his seat on the Papal chair, and left at his death an immense treasure, accumulated by the sale of benefices, while his rival the Emperor died in indigence.

2. His successor in the empire, Charles IV., published, in 1355, the Imperial constitution, termed *The Golden Bull*, the fundamental law of the Germanic body, which reduced the number of Electors to seven, and settled on them all the hereditary offices of state. These exemplified their new rights, by deposing his son Wenceslaus for incapacity, 1400. Three separate factions of the French and Italian cardinals having elected three separate Popes, the Emperor Sigismund judged this division of the church to be a fit opportunity for his interference, to reconcile all differ-

ences, and establish his own supremacy. He summoned a general council at Constance 1414, and ended the dispute, by degrading all the three Pontiffs, and naming a fourth, Martin Colonna. This division of the Papacy is termed the *great schism of the west.*

3. The spiritual business of the council of Constance was no less important than its temporal. John Huss, a disciple of Wickliff, was tried for heresy, in denying the hierarchy, and satirising the immoralities of the Popes and bishops. He did not deny the charge; and refusing to confess his errors, was burnt alive. A similar fate was the portion of his friend and disciple, Jerome of Prague, who displayed at his execution the eloquence of an apostle, and the constancy of a martyr, 1416. Sigismund felt the consequence of these horrible proceedings; for the Bohemians opposed his succession to their vacant crown, and it cost him a war of sixteen years to attain it.

4. Whatever was the imperial power at this time, it derived but small consequence from its actual revenues. The wealth of the Germanic states was exclusively possessed by their separate Sovereigns, and the Emperor

had little more than what he drew from Bohemia and Hungary. The sovereignty of Italy was an empty title. The interest of the Emperor in that country furnished only a source of faction to its princes, and embroiled the states in perpetual quarrels. A series of conspiracies and civil tumults form, for above 200 years, the annals of the principal cities. Naples and Sicily were ruined by the weak and disorderly government of the two Joannas. A passion which the younger of these conceived for a soldier of the name of Sforza, raised him to the sovereignty of Milan; and her adoption, first of Alphonso of Arragon, and afterwards of Lewis of Anjou, laid the foundation of those contests between Spain and France for the sovereignty of the two Sicilies, which afterwards agitated all Europe.

XXII.

HISTORY OF ENGLAND IN THE THIRTEENTH CENTURY.

1. HENRY III., who, at nine years of age, succeeded to the crown of England on the death of his father John, was a prince of amiable dispositions, but of weak understanding. His preference for foreign favourites disgusted his nobles; and the want of economy in his government, and oppressive exactions, deprived him of the affection of his people. Montfort Earl of Leicester, son of the leader of the crusade against the Albigenses, and brother-in-law of the King, conceived a plan for usurping the government; and forming a league with the barons, on the pretext of reforming abuses, compelled Henry to delegate all the regal power into the hands of twenty-four of their number. These divided among themselves the offices of government, and new-modelled the parliament, by summoning a certain number of knights

chosen from each county, a measure fatal to their own power; for these representatives of the people, indignant at Leicester's usurpation, determined to restore the royal authority; and they called on Prince Edward, a youth of intrepid spirit, to avenge his father's wrongs, and save the kingdom.

2. Leicester raised a formidable force, and, in a successful engagement, at Lewes in Sussex, 1264, defeated the royal army, and made both the King and Prince his prisoners. He now compelled the impotent Henry to ratify his authority by a solemn treaty; and, assuming the character of Regent, he called a parliament, summoning two knights from each of the counties, and deputies from the principal boroughs, the first regular plan of the English House of Commons. This assembly, exercising its just rights, and asserting with firmness the re-establishment of the ancient government of the kingdom, Leicester judged it prudent to release the Prince from his confinement; and Edward was no sooner at liberty, than he took the field against the usurper, who, in the battle of Evesham, 4th August 1265, was defeated and slain. Henry

was now restored to his throne by the arms of his gallant son, who, after establishing domestic tranquillity, embarked in the last crusade with Lewis IX., and signalised his prowess by many valorous exploits in Palestine. He had the honour of concluding an advantageous truce for ten years with the Sultan of Babylon, and was on his return to England when he received intelligence of his accession to the crown by the death of his father, 1272.

3. Edward I., in the beginning of his reign, projected the conquest of Wales. The Welsh, the descendants of the ancient Britons who had escaped the Roman and Saxon conquests, preserved their liberty, their laws, their manners, and their language. Their Prince, Lewellyn, refusing his customary homage, Edward invaded Wales, and surrounding the army of the Prince, who retreated to the mountains, cut off all his supplies, and compelled him to an unqualified submission. The terms demanded were, the surrender of a part of the country, a large sum of money, and an obligation of perpetual fealty to the crown of England. The Welsh infringed this treaty; and Edward marched his army into the heart

of the country, where the troops of Lewellyn made a most desperate but ineffectual resistance. In a decisive engagement, in 1283, the Prince was slain. His brother David, betrayed into the hand of the conqueror, was inhumanly executed on a gibbet; and Wales, completely subdued, was annexed to the crown of England. With a policy equally absurd and cruel, Edward ordered the Welsh bards to be put to death wherever found; thereby insuring the perpetuation of their heroic songs, and increasing the abhorrence of the vanquished people for their barbarous conqueror.

4. The conquest of Wales inflamed the ambition of Edward, and inspired him with the design of extending his dominion to the extremity of the island. The designs of this enterprising monarch on the kingdom of Scotland invite our attention to that quarter; but previously require a short retrospect to its earlier history.

XXIII.

HISTORY OF SCOTLAND FROM THE ELEVENTH TO THE FOURTEENTH CENTURY.

1. THE history of Scotland, before the reign of Malcolm III., surnamed Canmore, is obscure, from the deficiency of historical records. This prince, by the defeat of Macbeth, the murderer of his father Duncan, succeeded to the throne in 1057; and espousing the cause of Edgar Atheling, heir of the Saxon Kings of England, whose sister he married, he thus provoked a war with William the Conqueror, which was equally prejudicial to both kingdoms. In an expedition of Malcolm into England, it is alleged that, after concluding a truce, he was compelled by William to do homage for his kingdom. The truth is, that this homage was done for the territories in Cumberland and Northumberland won by the Scots, and held in vassalage of the English crown, though this homage was afterwards absurdly

made the pretext of a claim of feudal sovereignty over all Scotland. In a reign of twenty-seven years, Malcolm supported a spirited contest with England, both under William I. and his son Rufus; and to the virtues of his Queen Margaret his kingdom, in its domestic policy, owed a degree of civilization remarkable in those ages of barbarism.

2. Alexander I., his son and successor, defended, with equal spirit and good policy, the independence of his kingdom; and his son David I., celebrated even by the democratic Buchanan, as an honour to his country and to monarchy, won from Stephen, and annexed to his crown, the whole earldom of Northumberland. In those reigns we hear of no claim of the feudal subjection of Scotland to the crown of England; though the accidental fortune of war afterwards furnished a ground for it. William I. (the Lyon), taken prisoner at Alnwick by Henry II., was compelled, as the price of his release, to do homage for his whole kingdom; an obligation which his successor Richard voluntarily discharged, as deeming it to have been unjustly extorted.

3. On the death of Alexander III. without male issue, in 1285, Bruce and Baliol, descendants of David I. by the female line, were competitors for the crown, and the pretensions of each were supported by a formidable party in the kingdom. Edward I. of England, chosen umpire of the contest, arrogated to himself, in that character, the feudal sovereignty of the kingdom, compelling all the barons to swear allegiance to him, and taking actual possession of the country by his troops. He then adjudged the crown to Baliol, on the express condition of his swearing fealty to him as lord paramount. Baliol, however, soon after renouncing his allegiance, the indignant Edward invaded Scotland with an immense force, and compelled the weak prince to abdicate the throne, and resign the kingdom into his hands.

4. William Wallace, one of the greatest heroes whom history records, restored the fallen honours of his country. Joined by a few patriots, his first successes in attacking the English garrisons brought numbers to his patriotic standard. Their successes were signal and conspicuous; victory followed upon

victory; and while Edward was engaged on the continent, his troops were utterly defeated in a desperate engagement at Stirling, and forced to evacuate the kingdom. Wallace, the deliverer of his country, now assumed the title of Governor of Scotland under Baliol, who was Edward's prisoner; a distinction which was followed by the envy and disaffection of many of the nobles, and the consequent diminution of his army. The Scots were defeated at Falkirk. Edward returned with a vast accession of force; and, after a fruitless resistance, the Scottish barons finally obtained peace by a capitulation, from which the brave Wallace was excepted by name. A fugitive for some time, he was betrayed into the hands of Edward, who put him to death with every circumstance of cruelty that barbarous revenge could dictate, 1304.

5. Scotland found a second champion and deliverer in Robert Bruce, the grandson of the competitor with Baliol; who, deeply resenting the humiliation of his country, once more set up the standard of war, and gave defiance to the English monarch, to whom his father

and grandfather had meanly swore allegiance. Under this intrepid leader the spirit of the nation was roused at once: the English were attacked in every quarter, and once more entirely driven out of the kingdom. Robert Bruce was crowned King at Scone, 1306; and Edward, advancing with an immense army, died at Carlisle, 7th July, 1307, enjoining it with his last breath to his son Edward II. to prosecute the war with the Scots to the entire reduction of the country.

XXIV.

HISTORY OF ENGLAND IN THE FOURTEENTH CENTURY.

1. In the reign of Edward I. we observe the constitution of England gradually advancing. The Commons had been admitted to Parliament in the latter period of his father Henry III. A statute was passed by Edward, which declared, that no tax or impost should

be levied without the consent of Lords and Commons. The same monarch ratified the *Magna Charta* no less than eleven times in the course of his reign; and henceforward this fundamental law began to be regarded as sacred and unalterable.

2. Edward II. was in character the very opposite of his father, weak, indolent, and capricious, but of humane and benevolent affections. He disgusted his nobles by his attachment to mean and undeserving favourites, whom he raised to the highest dignities of the state, and honoured with his exclusive confidence. Piers Gaveston, a vicious and trifling minion, whom the King appointed Regent when on a journey to Paris to marry Isabella, daughter of Philip the Fair, disgusted the barons to such a pitch, that they compelled the King to delegate all the authority of government to certain commissioners, and to abandon his favourite to their resentment. He was doomed to perpetual imprisonment, and, on attempt to escape, was seized and beheaded.

3. Edward, in obedience to his father's will, invaded Scotland with 100,000 men.

King Robert Bruce met this immense force with 30,000 at Bannockburn, and defeated them with prodigious slaughter. This important victory secured the independency of Scotland. Edward escaped by sea to his own dominions; and a new favourite, Spencer, supplying the place of Gaveston, his undeserved elevation and over-bearing character completed the disaffection of the nobles to their sovereign. The Queen, a vicious adulteress, joined the malcontents, and, passing over to France, obtained from her brother Charles IV. an army to invade England, and dethrone her husband. Her enterprise was successful. Spencer and his father were betrayed into the hands of their enemies, and perished on a scaffold. The King was taken prisoner, tried by Parliament, and solemnly deposed; and, being confined to prison, was soon after put to death with unexampled circumstances of cruelty, 1327.

4. Edward III., crowned at fourteen years of age, could not submit to the regency of a mother stained with the foulest of crimes. His father's death was revenged by the perpetual imprisonment of Isabella, and the pub-

lic execution of her paramour Mortimer. Bent on the conquest of Scotland, Edward marched to the North with a prodigious army, vanquished the Scots in the battle of Hallidounhill, and placed Edward Baliol, his vassal and tributary, on the throne. But the kingdom was as repugnant as ever to the rule of England, and a favourable opportunity was taken for the renewal of hostilities, on the departure of Edward for a foreign enterprise, which gave full scope to his ambition.

5. On the death of Charles IV. without male-issue, the crown of France was claimed by Edward III. of England, in right of his mother, the sister of Charles, while, in the mean time, the throne was occupied by the male heir, Philip of Valois. Edward fitted out an immense armament by sea and land; and, obtaining a signal victory over the French fleet, landed on the coast of Normandy, and, with his son, the Black Prince, ran a career of the most glorious exploits. Philip, with 100,000 men, met the English with 30,000, and was entirely defeated in the field of Cressy, August 26th, 1348. Here the English are said for the first time to have used

artillery in battle. Fire-arms are thus but a recent invention (1340), and have much contributed to lessen both the slaughter and the frequency of wars. Mr. Hume observes, that war is now reduced nearly to a matter of calculation. A nation knows its power; and, when over-matched, either yields to its enemies, or secures itself by alliance. But late events have given some contradiction to these opinions. Calais, taken by the English, remained in their possession for 210 years.

6. The Scots, in the mean time, invading England, were defeated in the battle of Durham, by Philippa, the heroic Queen of Edward III., and their sovereign David II. led prisoner to London. A truce concluded between Edward and Philip was dissolved by the death of the latter, and the succession of his son John, who took the field with 60,000 men against the Black Prince, and was defeated by him with a far inferior number in the signal battle of Poictiers, September 19. 1356. John King of France was led in triumph to London, the fellow-prisoner of David, King of Scotland. But England derived from these victories nothing but honour.

The French continued the war with great vigour during the captivity of their sovereign, who died in London 1364; and they obtained a peace by the cession to the English of Poictou, St. Onge, Perigord, &c., while Edward consented to renounce his claim to the crown of France. The death of the Black Prince, a most heroic and virtuous character, plunged the nation in grief, and broke the spirits of his father, who did not long survive him.

7. Richard II. succeeded his grandfather, 1377, at the age of eleven. Charles VI. soon after became King of France at the age of twelve, and both kingdoms suffered from the distractions attending a regal minority. In England the contests for power between the King's uncles, Lancaster, York, and Gloucester, embroiled all public measures, and the consequent disorders required a stronger hand to compose them than that of the weak and facile Richard. Taking advantage of the King's absence, then engaged in quelling an insurrection in Ireland, Henry of Lancaster rose in open rebellion, and compelled Richard, at his return, to resign the crown. The parliament confirmed his deposition, and he was

soon after privately assassinated. Thus began the contentions between the houses of York and Lancaster.

XXV.

ENGLAND AND FRANCE IN THE FIFTEENTH CENTURY.—STATE OF MANNERS.

1. HENRY IV. ascended the throne on the deposition of Richard II., 1399, and had immediately to combat a rebellion raised by the Earl of Northumberland, for placing Mortimer, the heir of the house of York, on the throne. The Scotch and Welsh took part with the rebels, but their united forces were defeated at Shrewsbury, and their leader, young Percy (Hotspur), killed on the field. A second rebellion, headed by the Archbishop of York, was quelled by the capital punishment of its author. The secular arm was rigorously extended against the followers of Wickliff, and this reign saw the first detestable examples of religious persecution. The

life of Henry was imbittered by the youthful disorders of his son the Prince of Wales, who afterwards nobly redeemed his character. Henry IV. died 1413, at the age of forty-six.

2. Henry V. took advantage of the disorders of France, from the temporary insanity of its sovereign Charles VI., and the factious struggles for power between the Dukes of Burgundy and Orleans, to invade the kingdom with a large army, which a contagious distemper wasted down to a fifth of its numbers; yet with this handful of resolute and hardy troops he defeated the French army of 60,000, under the Constable D'Albert, in the famous battle of Agincourt, in which 10,000 of the enemy were slain, and 14,000 made prisoners, October 24. 1415. Returning to England to recruit his forces, he landed again with an army of 25,000, and fought his way to Paris. The insane monarch, with his court, fled to Troye, and Henry pursuing, terminated the war by a treaty with the Queen-mother and the Duke of Burgundy, by which it was agreed that he should marry the daughter of Charles VI. and receive the kingdom of France

as her dowry, which, till the death of her father, he should govern as regent.

2. Mean time the return of Henry to England gave the Dauphin hopes of the recovery of his kingdom. He was victorious in an engagement with the English under the Duke of Clarence: but his success was of no longer duration than the absence of the English Sovereign, who was himself hastening to the period of his triumphs. Seized with a mortal distemper, Henry died in the 34th year of his age, 1422, one of the most heroic princes that ever swayed the sceptre of England. His brother, the Duke of Bedford, was declared Regent of France, and Henry VI., an infant nine months old, was proclaimed King at Paris and at London, 1422.

4. Charles VII. recovered France by slow degrees. With the aid of a young female enthusiast, the Maid of Orleans, whom the credulity of the age supposed to be inspired by Heaven, he gained several important advantages over the English, which the latter inhumanly revenged, by burning this heroine as a sorceress. Her death was of equal advantage to the French as her life had been.

The government of the English was universally detested: it was a struggle of many years; but at length, in 1450, they were deprived of all they had ever possessed in France, except Calais and Guignes. Charles, when he had restored his kingdom to peace, governed it with admirable wisdom and moderation.

5. The state of England and of France, the two most polished kingdoms in Europe, furnishes a good criterion of the condition of society in those ages of which we have been treating. Even in the large cities, the houses were roofed with thatch, and had no chimnies. Glass windows were extremely rare, and the floors were covered with straw. In England wine was sold only in the shops of the apothecaries. Paper made from linen rags was first manufactured in the beginning of the fifteenth century; and the use of linen for shirts was at that time a very rare piece of luxury. Yet it appears, that even before that age the progress of luxury had excited a serious alarm; for the parliament under Edward III. found it necessary to prohibit the use of gold and silver in apparel to all who had not a

hundred pounds a-year; and Charles VI. of France ordained, that none should presume to entertain with more than two dishes and a mess of soup. Before the reign of Edward I. the whole country of England was plundered by robbers in great bands, who laid waste entire villages; and some of the household-officers of Henry III. excused themselves for robbing on the highway, because the King allowed them no wages. In 1303, the abbot and monks of Westminster were indicted for robbing the King's exchequer, but acquitted. The admirable laws of Edward I., which acquired him the title of the English Justinian, give strong testimony of the miserable policy and barbarism of the preceding times.

XXVI.

DECLINE AND FALL OF THE GREEK EMPIRE.

1. In the fourteenth century the Turks were proceeding by degrees to encroach on the frontiers of the Greek empire. The Sultan Ottoman had fixed the seat of his government at Byrsa in Bythynia, and his son Orcan extended his sovereignty to the Propontis, and obtained in marriage the daughter of the Emperor John Cantacuzenos. About the middle of the century, the Turks crossed over into Europe, and took Adrianople. The Emperor John Palaeologus, after meanly soliciting aid from the Pope, concluded a humiliating treaty with Sultan Amurat, and gave his son as a hostage to serve in the Turkish army.

2. Bajazet, the successor of Amurat, compelled the Emperor to destroy his fort of Galata, and to admit a Turkish judge into the

city. He prepared now to besiege Constantinople in form, when he was forced to change his purpose, and defend himself against the victorious Tamerlane.

3. Timur-bek or Tamerlane, a prince of the Usbek Tartars, and descended from Gengiskan, after the conquest of Persia, and a great part of India and Syria, was invited by the Asiatic princes, enemies of Bajazet, to protect them against the Ottoman power, which threatened to overwhelm them. Tamerlane, flattered by this request, imperiously summoned the Turk to renounce his conquests; a message answered with a proud defiance. The armies met near Angoria (Ancyra) in Phrygia, and Bajazet was totally defeated and made prisoner by Tamerlane, 1402. The conqueror made Samarcand the capital of his empire, and there received the homage of all the princes of the East. Illiterate himself, he was solicitous for the cultivation of literature and science in his dominions; and Samarcand became for a while the seat of learning, politeness, and the arts, but was destined to relapse, after a short period, into its ancient barbarism.

4. The Turks, after the death of Tamerlane, resumed their purpose of destroying the empire of the East. Amurat II., a prince of a singular character, had, on the faith of a solemn treaty with the King of Poland, devoted his days to retirement and study. A violation of the treaty, by an attack from the Poles on his dominions, made him quit his solitude. He engaged and cut to pieces the Polish army, with their perfidious Sovereign, and then calmly returned to his retreat, till a similar crisis of public expediency once more brought him into active life. He left his dominions to his son Mahomet II., surnamed the Great, who resumed the project for the destruction of Constantinople; but its fall was a second time retarded by the necessity in which the Turks were unexpectedly placed, of defending their own dominions against a powerful invader.

5. Scanderberg (John Castriot) Prince of Albania, whose territories had been seized by Amurat II., was educated by the Sultan as his own child, and, when of age, intrusted with the command of an army, which he employed in wresting from Amurat his paternal king-

dom, 1443. By great talents and military skill, he maintained his independent sovereignty against the whole force of the Turkish empire.

6. Mahomet II., son of the philosophic Amurat, a youth of twenty-one years of age, resumed the plan of extinguishing the empire of the Greeks, and making Constantinople the capital of the Ottoman power. Its indolent inhabitants made but a feeble preparation for defence, and the powers of Europe looked on with the most supine indifference. The Turks assailed the city both on the land side and that of the sea; and battering down its walls with their cannon, entered sword in hand, and massacred all who opposed them. The Emperor Constantine was slain; the city surrendered; and thus was finally extinguished the eastern empire of the Romans, A.D. 1453, which, from the building of its capital by Constantine the Great, had subsisted 1123 years. The Imperial edifices were preserved from destruction, the churches converted into mosques; but the exercise of their religion was allowed to all the Christians. From that time the Greek Christians have regularly chosen

their own patriarch, whom the Sultan instals; although his authority continues to be disputed by the Latin patriarch, who is chosen by the Pope. Mahomet the Great liberally patronised the arts and sciences; and to compensate for the migration of those learned Greeks, who, on the fall of the empire, spread themselves over the countries of Europe, invited both artists and men of letters to his capital from other kingdoms.

7. The taking of Constantinople was followed by the conquest of Greece and Epirus; and Italy might probably have met with a similar fate, but for the fleet of the Venetians who opposed the arms of Mahomet with considerable success, and even attacked him in Greece; but the contending powers soon after put an end to hostilities by a treaty. Mahomet the Great died at the age of fifty-one, 1481.

XXVII.

GOVERNMENT AND POLICY OF THE TURKISH EMPIRE.

1. THE government of Turkey is an absolute monarchy, the whole legislative and executive authority of the state centering in the Sultan, whose power is subject to no constitutional control. It is, however, limited in some degree by religious opinion; the precepts of the Koran inculcating certain duties on the Sovereign which it would be held an impiety to transgress. It is yet more strongly limited by the fear of dethronement and assassination. Under these restraints, the prince can never venture on an extreme abuse of power.

2. The spirit of the people is fitted for a subjection bordering on slavery. Concubinage being agreeable to the law of Mahomet, the Grand Seignior, the viziers, are born of female slaves; and there is scarce a subject

of the empire of ingenuous blood by both parents. It is a fundamental maxim of the Turkish policy, that all the officers of state should be such as the Sultan can entirely command, and at any time destroy, without danger to himself.

3. The Grand Vizier is usually intrusted with the whole functions of government, and of course subjected to the sole responsibility for all public measures. Subordinate to him are six viziers of the bench, who are his council and assessors in cases of law, of which he is supreme judge. The power of the Grand Vizier is absolute over all the subjects of the empire; but he cannot put to death a Beglerbeg or a Bashaw without the Imperial signature; nor punish a Janizary, unless through the medium of his military commander. The Beglerbegs are the governors of several provinces, the Bashaws of a single province. All dignities in the Turkish empire are personal, and dependent on the Sovereign's pleasure.

4. The revenues of the Grand Seignior arise from taxes and customs laid on the subject, annual tributes paid by the Tartars,

stated gifts from the governors of the provinces, and, above all, the confiscations of estates, from the Viziers and Bashaws downwards, to the lowest subjects of the empire. The certain and fixed revenues of the Sovereign are small in comparison to those which are arbitrary; and his absolute power enables him to execute great projects at a small expense.

XXVIII.

FRANCE AND ITALY IN THE END OF THE FIFTEENTH CENTURY.

THERE was scarcely any vestige now remaining in France of the ancient feudal government. The only subsisting fiefs were Burgundy and Brittany. Charles the Bold, Duke of Burgundy, who sought to increase his territories by the conquest of Switzerland and Lorraine, was defeated by the Swiss, and killed in battle; and as he left no son, Lewis XI. of France took possession

of Burgundy as a male fief, 1447. The Duke's daughter married Maximilian, son of the Emperor Frederic III., who, by this marriage, acquired the sovereignty of the Netherlands.

2. The acquisition of Burgundy and of Provence, which was bequeathed to France by the Count de la Marche, increased very greatly the power of the crown. Lewis XI., an odious compound of vice, cruelty, and superstition, and a tyrant to his people, was yet the author of many wise and excellent regulations of public policy. The barbarity of the public executions in his reign is beyond all belief; yet the wisdom of his laws, the encouragement he gave to commerce, the restraints he imposed on the oppressions of the nobility, and the attention he bestowed in regulating the courts of justice, must ever be mentioned to his honour.

3. The Count de la Marche, besides the bequest of Provence to Lewis XI., left him his empty title of Sovereign of the Two Sicilies. Lewis was satisfied with the substantial gift; but his son Charles VIII. was dazzled with the shadow. In the beginning of his reign

he projected the conquest of Naples, and embarked in the enterprise with the most improvident precipitancy.

4. The dismembered state of Italy was favourable to his views. The Popedom, during the transference of its seat to Avignon had lost many of its territories. Mantua, Modena, and Ferrara, had their independent Sovereigns. Piedmont belonged to the Duke of Savoy; Genoa and Milan to the family of Sforza. Florence, under the Medici, had attained to a very high pitch of splendour. Cosmo, the founder of that family, employed a vast fortune acquired by commerce, in the improvement of his country, in acts of public munificence, and in the cultivation of the sciences and elegant arts. His high reputation obtained for himself and his posterity the chief authority in his native state. Peter de Medici, his great grandson, ruled in Florence at the period of the expedition of Charles VIII. into Italy.

5. The Papacy was enjoyed at this time by Alexander VI., a monster of wickedness. The Pope and the Duke of Milan,

who had invited Charles to this enterprise, immediately betrayed him, and joined the interest of the King of Naples. Charles, after besieging the Pope in Rome, and forcing him to submission, devoutly kissed his feet. He now marched against Naples, while its timid Prince Alphonso fled to Sicily, and his son to the Islè of Ischia, after absolving his subjects from their allegiance. Charles entered Naples in triumph, and was hailed Emperor and Augustus: but he lost his new kingdom in almost as short a time as he had gained it. A league was formed against France between the Pope, the Emperor Maximilian, Ferdinand of Arragon, Isabella of Castile, and the Venetians; and on the return of Charles to France, the troops he had left to guard his conquest were entirely driven out of Italy.

6. It has been remarked, that from the decisive effect of this confederacy against Charles VIII. the Sovereigns of Europe derived an useful lesson of policy, and first adopted the idea of preserving a balance of power, by that tacit league, which is understood to be always subsisting, for the pre-

vention of the inordinate aggrandisement of any particular state.

7. Charles VIII. died at the age of twenty-eight, 1498; and, leaving no children, the Duke of Orleans succeeded to the throne of France, by the title of Lewis XII.

XXIX.

HISTORY OF SPAIN IN THE FOURTEENTH AND FIFTEENTH CENTURIES.

1. We go back a little to the middle of the fourteenth century, to trace the history of Spain. Peter of Castile, surnamed the Cruel, (for no other reason than that he employed severe means to support his just rights,) had to contend against a bastard brother, Henry of Transtamarre, who, with the aid of a French banditti, called Malandrins, led by Bertrand du Guesclin, strove to dispossess him of his kingdom. Peter was aided by Edward the Black Prince, then Sovereign of Guienne, who defeated Transta-

marre, and took Bertrand prisoner; but, on the return of the Prince to England, Peter was attacked by his former enemies, and entirely defeated. Unable to restrain his rage in the first interview with Transtamarre, the latter put him to death with his own hand, 1368; and thus this usurper secured for himself and his posterity the throne of Castile.

2. The weakness and debauchery of one of his descendants, Henry IV. of Castile, occasioned a revolution in the kingdom. The majority of the nation rose in rebellion; the assembly of the nobles solemnly deposed their King, and, on the alleged ground of his daughter Johanna being a bastard, compelled him to settle the crown on his sister Isabella. They next brought about a marriage between Isabella and Ferdinand of Arragon, which united the monarchies of Arragon and Castile. After a ruinous civil war, the revolution was at length completed by the death of the deposed Sovereign, 1474, and the retirement of his daughter Johanna to a monastery, 1479.

3. At the accession of Ferdinand and Isabella to the thrones of Arragon and Castile,

Spain was in a state of great disorder, from the lawless depredations of the nobles and their vassals. It was the first object of the new Sovereigns to repress these enormities, by subjecting the offenders to the utmost rigour of law, enforced by the sword. *The Holy Brotherhood* was instituted for the discovery and punishment of crimes; and the Inquisition, (see *supra*, Sect. XIX. § 3.) under the pretext of extirpating heresy and impiety, afforded the most detestable examples of sanguinary persecution.

4. The Moorish kingdom of Granada, a most splendid monarchy, but at that time weakened by faction, and a prey to civil war, offered a tempting object to the ambition of Ferdinand and Isabella. Alboacen was at war with his nephew Aboabdeli, who wanted to dethrone him; and Ferdinand aided Aboabdeli, in the view of ruining both; for no sooner was the latter in possession of the crown by the death of Alboacen, than Ferdinand invaded his ally with the whole force of Arragon and Castile. Granada was besieged in 1491; and, after a blockade of eight months, surrendered to the victor. Abo-

abdeli, by a mean capitulation, saved his life, and purchased a retreat for his countrymen to a mountainous part of the kingdom, where they were suffered to enjoy unmolested their laws and their religion. Thus ended the dominion of the Moors in Spain, which had subsisted for 800 years.

5. Ferdinand, from that period, took the title of King of Spain. In 1492, he expelled all the Jews from his dominions, on the absurd ground, that they kept in their hands the commerce of the kingdom; and Spain thus lost above 150,000 of the most industrious of her inhabitants. The exiles spread themselves over the other kingdoms of Europe, and were often the victims of a persecution equally inhuman. It would appear that Spain has felt, even to the present times, the effects of this folly, in the slow progress of the arts, and that deplorable inactivity which is the characteristic of her people. Even the discovery of the New World, which happened at this very period, and which stimulated the spirit of enterprise and industry in all the neighbouring kingdoms, produced but a feeble impression on that nation, which might in a

great degree have monopolised its benefits. Of that great discovery we shall afterwards treat in a separate section.

XXX.

FRANCE, SPAIN, AND ITALY IN THE END OF THE FIFTEENTH AND BEGINNING OF THE SIXTEENTH CENTURY.

1. LEWIS XII., eagerly bent on vindicating his right to Naples, courted the interest of Pope Alexander VI., who promised his aid, on the condition that his natural son, Caesar Borgia, should receive from Lewis the duchy of Valentinois, with the King of Navarre's sister in marriage. Lewis crossed the Alps; and in the space of a few days was master of Milan and Genoa. Sforza Duke of Milan became his prisoner for life. Afraid of the power of Ferdinand of Spain, Lewis joined with him in the conquest of Naples, and agreed to divide with him the conquered dominions, the Pope making no scruple to sanction the partition. But the compromise was of no dura-

tion; for Alexander VI. and Ferdinand judging it a better policy to share Italy between themselves, united their interest to strip Lewis of his new territories. The Spaniards, under Gonsalvo de Cordova, defeated the French under the Duke de Nemours and the Chevalier Bayard; and Lewis irrecoverably lost his share of the kingdom of Naples.

2. History relates with horror the crimes of Pope Alexander VI. and his son Caesar Borgia; their murders, robberies, profanations, incests. They compassed their ends in attaining every object of their ambition, but with the universal abhorrence of mankind, and finally met with an ample retribution for their crimes. The Pope died by poison, prepared, as was alleged, by himself for an enemy; and Borgia, stripped of all his possessions by Pope Julius II., and sent prisoner to Spain by Gonsalvo de Cordova, perished in miserable obscurity.

3. Julius II., the successor of Alexander, projected the formidable league of Cambray, 1508, with the Emperor, the Kings of France and Spain, the Duke of Savoy, and King of Hungary, for the destruction of Venice, and divid-

ing her territories among the confederates. They accomplished in part their design; and Venice was on the verge of annihilation, when the Pope changed his politics; and having made the French subservient to his views of plundering the Venetians, now formed a new league with them, and the Germans and Spaniards, to expel the French from Italy, and appropriate all their conquests. The Swiss and the English co-operated in this design. The French made a brave resistance under their generals Bayard and Gaston de Foix, but were finally overpowered. Lewis was compelled to evacuate Italy: Ferdinand, with the aid of Henry VIII. of England, stripped him of Navarre, and forced him to purchase a peace. He died in 1515; and, though unfortunate in his military enterprises, from the superior abilities of his rivals Pope Julius and Ferdinand, was justly esteemed by his subjects for the wisdom and equity of his government.

XXXI.

HISTORY OF ENGLAND FROM THE MIDDLE OF THE FIFTEENTH TO THE BEGINNING OF THE SIXTEENTH CENTURY. —— CIVIL WARS OF YORK AND LANCASTER.

1. We have seen France recovered from the English in the early part of the reign of Henry VI. by the talents and prowess of Charles VII. During the minority of Henry, who was a prince of no capacity, England was embroiled by the factious contention for power between his uncles, the Duke of Gloucester and the Cardinal of Winchester. The latter, to promote his own views of ambition, married Henry to Margaret of Anjou, daughter of Regnier the titular King of Naples, a woman of great mental endowments and singular heroism of character, but whose severity in the persecution of her enemies alienated a great part of the nobles from their allegiance, and increased the partisans of a rival claimant of the crown.

2. This was Richard Duke of York, descended by his mother from Lionel second

son of Edward III., and elder brother to John of Gaunt, the progenitor of Henry VI. The White Rose distinguished the faction of York, as the Red that of Lancaster. The party of York gained much strength from the incapacity of Henry, who was subject to fits of lunacy; and Richard was appointed Lieutenant and Protector of the kingdom. The authority of Henry was now annihilated; but Margaret roused her husband, in an interval of sanity, to assert his right; and the nation was divided in arms between the rival parties. In the battle of St. Alban's, 5000 of the Lancastrians were slain, and the King was taken prisoner by the Duke of York, 22d May, 1454. Yet the Parliament, while it confirmed the authority of the Protector, maintained its allegiance to the King.

3. The spirit of the Queen re-animated the royal party; and the Lancastrians gained such advantage, that the Duke of York fled to Ireland, while his cause was secretly maintained in England by Guy Earl of Warwick. In the battle of Northampton the party of York again prevailed, and

Henry once more was brought prisoner to London, while his dauntless Queen still nobly exerted herself to retrieve his fortunes. York now claimed the crown in open parliament, but prevailed only to have his right of succession ascertained on Henry's death, to the exclusion of the royal issue.

4. In the next battle the Duke of York was slain, and his party defeated; but his successor Edward, supported by Warwick, avenged this disaster by a signal victory near Touton, in Yorkshire, in which 40,000 of the Lancastrians were slain. York was proclaimed King by the title of Edward IV., while Margaret, with her dethroned husband and infant son, fled to Flanders.

5. Edward, who owed his crown to Warwick, was ungrateful to his benefactor; and the imprudence and injustice of his conduct forced that nobleman at length to take part with the faction of Lancaster. The consequence was, that, after some struggles, Edward was deposed, and Henry VI. once more restored to the throne by the hands of Warwick, now known by the epithet of *The King-*

maker. But this change was of no duration: the party of York ultimately prevailed; the Lancastrians were defeated in the battle of Barnet, and the brave Warwick slain in the engagement, 1472.

6. The intrepid Margaret, whose spirit was superior to every change of fortune, prepared to strike a last blow for the crown of England in the battle of Tewksbury. The event was fatal to her hopes: victory declared for Edward. Margaret was sent prisoner to the Tower of London; and the Prince her son, a youth of high spirit, when brought into the presence of his conqueror, having nobly dared to justify his enterprise to the face of his rival, was barbarously murdered by the Dukes of Gloucester and Clarence. Henry VI. was soon after privately put to death in the Tower. The heroic Margaret, ransomed by Lewis XI., died in France, 1482.

7. Edward IV. thus secured on the throne by the death of all his competitors, abandoned himself without reserve to the indulgence of a vicious and tyrannical nature. He put to death, on the most frivolous pretence, his

brother Clarence; and, preparing to gratify his subjects by a war with France, he died suddenly, in the forty-second year of his age, poisoned, as was suspected, by his brother, Richard Duke of Gloucester, 1483.

8. Edward left two sons, the elder, Edward V., a boy of thirteen years of age. Richard Duke of Gloucester, named Protector in the minority of his nephew, hired, by means of Buckingham, a mob of the dregs of the populace to declare their wish for his assumption of the crown. He yielded, with affected reluctance, to this voice of the nation, and was proclaimed King by the title of Richard III., 1483. Edward V., (after a reign of two months,) together with his brother the Duke of York, were, by command of the usurper, smothered while asleep, and privately buried in the Tower.

9. These atrocious crimes found an avenger in Henry Earl of Richmond, the surviving heir of the house of Lancaster, who, aided by Charles VIII. of France, landed in England, and revived the spirits of a party almost extinguished in the kingdom. He gave battle to Richard in the field of Bosworth, and en-

tirely defeated the army of the usurper, who was slain while fighting with the most desperate courage, August 22. 1485. The crown he wore in the engagement was immediately placed on the head of the conqueror. This auspicious day put an end to the civil wars of York and Lancaster. Henry VII. united the rights of both families by his marriage with Elizabeth, daughter of Edward IV.

10. The reign of Henry VII. was of twenty-four years' duration; and under his wise and politic government the kingdom recovered all the wounds it had sustained in those unhappy contests. Industry, good order, and perfect subordination were the fruit of the excellent laws passed in this reign; though the temper of the sovereign was despotic, and his avarice, in the latter part of his reign, prompted to the most oppressive exactions.

11. The government of Henry was disturbed by two very singular enterprises; the attempt of Lambert Simnel, the son of a baker, to counterfeit the person of the Earl of Warwick, son of the Duke of Clarence; and the similar attempt of Perkin Warbeck,

son of a Flemish Jew, to counterfeit the Duke of York, who had been smothered in the tower by Richard III. Both impostors found considerable support, but were finally defeated. Simnel, after being crowned at Dublin King of England and Ireland, ended his days in a menial office of Henry's household. Perkin, for five years, supported his cause by force of arms, and was aided by a great proportion of the English nobility. Overpowered at length, he surrendered to Henry, who condemned him to perpetual imprisonment; but his ambitious spirit meditating a new insurrection, he was put to death as a traitor. Henry VII. died 1509, in the fifty-third year of his age, and twenty-fourth of his reign.

XXXII.

HISTORY OF SCOTLAND FROM THE MIDDLE OF THE FOURTEENTH CENTURY TO THE END OF THE REIGN OF JAMES V.

1. In no country of Europe had the feudal aristocracy attained to a greater height than in Scotland. The power of the greater barons, while it rendered them independent, and often the rivals of their Sovereign, was a perpetual source of turbulence and disorder in the kingdom. It was therefore a constant policy of the Scottish kings to humble the nobles, and break their factious combinations. Robert I. attempted to retrench the vast territorial possessions of his barons, by requiring every landholder to produce the titles of his estate; but was resolutely answered that the sword was their charter of possession.

2. On the death of Robert, in 1329, and during the minority of his son David, Edward

Baliol, the son of John formerly King of Scotland, with the aid of Edward III. of England, and supported by many of the factious barons, invaded the kingdom, and was crowned at Scone, while the young David was conveyed for security to France. The mean dependence of Baliol on the English monarch deprived him of the affections of the people. Robert the Steward of Scotland, Randolph and Douglas, supported the Brucian interest, and, assisted by the French, restored David to his throne; a prince destined to sustain many reverses of fortune; for, in a subsequent invasion of the English territory by the Scots, David was taken prisoner in the battle of Durham, and conveyed to London. He remained for eleven years in captivity, and witnessed the similar fate of a brother monarch, John King of France, taken prisoner by the Black Prince in the battle of Poictiers. David was ransomed by his subjects, and restored to his kingdom in 1357; and he ended a turbulent reign in 1370-1. The crown passed at his demise to his nephew Robert, the High Steward of

Scotland, in virtue of a destination made by Robert I. with consent of the States.

3. The reign of Robert II., which was of twenty years' duration, was spent in a series of hostilities between the Scots and English, productive of no material consequence to either kingdom ; and the weak and indolent disposition of his successor, Robert III., who found himself unequal to the contest with his factious nobles, prompted him to resign the government to his brother the Duke of Albany. This ambitious man formed the design of usurping the throne by the murder of his nephews, the sons of Robert. The elder Rothsay, a prince of high spirit, was imprisoned, on pretence of treasonable designs, and starved to death. The younger, James, escaped a similar fate which was intended for him ; but, on his passage to France, whither he was sent for safety by his father, he was taken by an English ship of war and brought prisoner to London. The weak Robert sunk under these misfortunes, and died 1405, after a reign of fifteen years.

4. James I., a prince of great natural en-

dowments, profited by a captivity of eighteen years at the court of England, in adorning his mind with every valuable accomplishment. At his return to his kingdom, which in his absence had been weakly governed by the Regent Albany, and suffered under all the disorders of anarchy, he bent his whole attention to the improvement and civilisation of his people, by the enactment of many excellent laws, enforced with a resolute authority. The factions of the nobles, their dangerous combinations, and their domineering tyranny over their dependents, the great sources of the people's miseries, were firmly restrained, and most severely punished. But these wholesome innovations, while they procured to James the affections of the nation at large, excited the odium of the nobility, and gave birth to a conspiracy, headed by the Earl of Athole, the King's uncle, which terminated in the murder of this excellent prince, in the 44th year of his age, A. D. 1437.

5. His son James II. inherited a considerable portion of the talents of his father; and, in the like purpose of restraining the inordi-

nate power of his nobles, pursued the same maxims of government, which an impetuous temper prompted him, in some instances, to carry to the most blameable excess. The Earl of Douglas, trusting to a powerful vassalage, had assumed an authority above the laws, and a state and splendour rival to those of his Sovereign. He was seized, and, without accusation or trial, beheaded. His successor imprudently running the same career, and boldly justifying, in a conference, his rebellious practices, was put to death by the King's own hand. Thus were the factions of the nobles quelled by a barbarous rigour of authority. To his people James was beneficent and humane, and his laws contributed materially to their civilisation and prosperity. He was killed in the 30th year of his age, by the bursting of a cannon, in besieging the castle of Roxburgh, A.D. 1460.

6. His son, James III., without the talents of his predecessors, affected to tread in the same steps. To humble his nobles, he bestowed his confidence on mean favourites; an insult which the former avenged by rebellion.

His brothers Albany and Mar, aided by Edward IV. of England, attempted a revolution in the kingdom, which was frustrated only by the death of Edward. In a second rebellion, the confederate nobles forced the Prince of Rothsay, eldest son of James, to appear in arms against his father. In an engagement near Bannockburn the rebels were successful, and the King was slain, in the 35th year of his age, 1488.

7. James IV., a great and most accomplished prince, whose talents were equalled by his virtues, while his measures of government were dictated by a true spirit of patriotism, won by a well-placed confidence the affections of his nobility. In his marriage with Margaret, the daughter of Henry VII. of England, both Sovereigns wisely sought a bond of amity between the kingdoms; but this purpose was frustrated in the succeeding reign of Henry VIII. The high spirit of the rival monarchs was easily inflamed by trifling causes of offence; and France, then at war with England, courted the aid of her ancient ally. James invaded England with a powerful army, which he wished to lead to immediate

action; but the prudent delays of Surrey, the English general, wasted and weakened his force; and in the fatal battle of Flodden the Scots were defeated with prodigious slaughter. The gallant James perished in the fight, and with him almost the whole of the Scottish nobles, A. D. 1513.

8. Under the long minority of his son James V., an infant at the time of his father's death, the kingdom was feebly ruled by his uncle Albany. The aristocracy began to resume its ancient spirit of independence, which was ill brooked by a prince of a proud and uncontrollable mind, who felt the keenest jealousy of a high prerogative. With a systematic policy, he employed the church to abase the nobility, conferring all the offices of state on able ecclesiastics. The Cardinal Beaton co-operated with great zeal in the designs of his master, and under him ruled the kingdom.

9. Henry VIII., embroiled with the Papacy, sought an alliance with the King of Scots, but the ecclesiastical counsellors of the latter defeated this beneficial purpose. A war was thus provoked, and James was reluctantly

compelled to court those nobles whom it had been hitherto his darling object to humiliate. They now determined on a disgraceful revenge. In an attack on the Scottish border the English were repelled, and an opportunity offered to the Scots of cutting off their retreat. The King gave his orders to that end, but his barons obstinately refused to advance beyond the frontier. One measure more was wanting to drive their Sovereign to despair. In a subsequent engagement with the English, 10,000 of the Scots deliberately surrendered themselves prisoners to 500 of the enemy. The high spirit of James sunk under his contending passions; and he died of a broken heart, in the 33d year of his age, a few days after the birth of a daughter, yet more unfortunate than her father, Mary Queen of Scots, A.D. 1542.

XXXIII.

ON THE ANCIENT CONSTITUTION OF THE SCOTTISH GOVERNMENT.

1. WE have seen it a constant policy with the Scottish Kings to abase the power of their nobles, and this struggle we have observed to have been the source of much misery and bloodshed; but the policy was necessary, from the dangerous ambition and lawless tyranny of those nobles, who frequently aimed at overturning the throne, and exercised the severest oppression on all their dependents. The interests, therefore, of the people, no less than the security of the prince, demanded the repression of this overbearing and destructive power. The aristocracy was, however, preserved, no less by its own strength than by the concurrence of circumstances, and chiefly by the violent and unhappy fate of the Sovereigns. Meantime, although the measures they pursued were not successful, their consequences were be-

neficial. They restrained, if they did not destroy, the spirit of feudal oppression, and gave birth to order, wise laws, and a more tranquil administration of government.

2. The legislative power, though nominally resident in the Parliament, was virtually in the King, who, by his influence, entirely controlled its proceedings. The Parliament consisted of three estates, the nobles, the dignified clergy, and the lesser barons, the representatives of the towns and shires. The disposal of benefices gave the crown the entire command of the churchmen, who equalled the nobles in number; and at least a majority of the commons were the dependents of the Sovereign. A committee, termed the Lords of the Articles, prepared every measure that was to come before the parliament, and these, by the mode of their election, were in effect nominated by the King. It is to the credit of the Scottish Princes, that there are few instances of their abusing an authority so extensive as that which they constitutionally enjoyed.

3. The King had anciently the supreme jurisdiction in all causes, civil and criminal,

which he generally exercised though the medium of his privy council; but in 1425 James I. instituted the Court of Session, consisting of the Chancellor and certain judges chosen from the three estates. This court was new-modelled by James V. and its jurisdiction limited to civil causes, the cognizance of crimes being committed to the Justiciary. The Chancellor was the highest officer of the crown, and president of the parliament. To the Chamberlain belonged the care of the finances and the public police; to the High Steward the charge of the King's household: the Constable regulated all matters of military arrangement; and the Marshall was the King's lieutenant, and master of the horse.

4. The revenue of the Sovereign consisted of his domain, which was extensive, of the feudal casualties and forfeitures, the profits of the wardships of his vassals, the rents of vacant benefices, the pecuniary fines for offences, and the aids or presents occasionally given by the subject; a revenue at all times sufficient for the purposes of government, and the support of the dignity of the crown.

5. The political principles which regulated the conduct of the Scots towards other nations were obvious and simple. It had ever been an object of ambition to England to acquire the sovereignty of her sister kingdom, who was constantly on her guard against this design of her more potent neighbour. It was the wisest policy for Scotland to attach herself to France, the natural enemy of England; an alliance reciprocally courted from similar motives. In those days this attachment was justly esteemed patriotic; while the Scots, who were the partisans of England, were with equal justice regarded as traitors to their country. In the period of which we now treat, it was a settled policy of the English Sovereigns to have a secret faction in their pay in Scotland, for the purpose of dividing and thus enslaving the nation; and to this source all the subsequent disorders of the latter kingdom are to be attributed.

XXXIV.

A VIEW OF THE PROGRESS OF LITERATURE AND SCIENCE IN EUROPE.

FROM THE REVIVAL OF LETTERS DOWN TO THE END OF THE FIFTEENTH CENTURY.

1. THE first restorers of learning in Europe were the Arabians, who, in the course of their Asiatic conquests, becoming acquainted with some of the ancient Greek authors, discovered and justly appreciated the knowledge and improvement to be derived from them. The Caliphs procured from the eastern Emperors copies of the ancient manuscripts, and had them carefully translated into Arabic; esteeming principally those which treated of mathematics, physics, and metaphysics. They disseminated their knowledge in the course of their conquests, and founded schools and colleges in all the countries they subdued.

2. The western kingdoms of Europe became first acquainted with the learning of the ancients through the medium of those Arabian translations. Charlemagne caused Latin translations to be made from the Arabian, and founded, after the example of the Caliphs, the universities of Bononia, Pavia, Osnaburg, and Paris. Alfred, with a similar spirit, and by similar means, introduced a taste for literature in England; but the subsequent disorders of the kingdom replunged it into barbarism. The Normans, however, brought from the continent some tincture of ancient learning, which was kept alive in the monasteries, where the Monks were meritoriously employed in transcribing a few of the ancient authors, along with the legendary lives of the saints.

3. In this dawn of literature in England appeared Henry of Huntingdon and Geoffrey of Monmouth, names distinguished in the earliest annals of poetry and romance; John of Salisbury, a moralist; William of Malmesbury, annalist of the history of England before the reign of Stephen; Giraldus Cambrensis, known in the fields of history, theology, and poetry; Joseph of Exeter, author of

two Latin epic poems on the Trojan war, and the war of Antioch, or the crusade, which are read with pleasure even in the present day.

4. But this aera of a good taste in letters was of short duration. The taste for classical composition and historic information yielded to the barbarous subtleties of scholastic divinity taught by Lombard and Abelard; and the abstruse doctrines of the Roman Law, which began to engage the general attention from the recent discovery of the Pandects at Amalphi, 1137. The amusements of the vulgar in those periods were metrical and prose romances, unintelligible prophecies, and fables of giants and enchanters.

5. In the middle of the thirteenth century appeared a distinguished genius, Roger Bacon, an English friar, whose comprehensive mind was filled with all the stores of ancient learning; who possessed a discriminating judgment to separate the precious ore from the dross, and a power of invention fitted to advance in every science which was the object of his study. He saw the insufficiency of the school philosophy, and first recommended the pro-

secution of knowledge by experiment and the observation of nature. He made discoveries of importance in astronomy, in optics, in chemistry and medicine, and mechanics. He reformed the kalendar, discovered the construction of telescopic glasses, forgotten after his time, and revived by Galileo, and has left a plain intimation of his knowledge of the composition of gunpowder. Yet this most superior genius believed in the possibility of discovering an elixir for the prolongation of life, in the transmutation of metals into gold, and in judicial astrology.

6. A general taste prevailed for poetical composition in the twelfth and thirteenth centuries. The Troubadours of Provence wrote sonnets, madrigals, and satirical ballads, and excelled in extempore dialogues on the subject of love, which they treated in a metaphysical and Platonic strain. They contended for the prize of poetry at solemn meetings, where princes, nobles, and the most illustrious ladies, attended to decide between the rival bards; and some of those princes, as Richard I. of England, Frederick I. Emperor of Germany, are celebrated themselves

as troubadours of eminence. Many fragments yet remain of their compositions.

7. The transference of the Papal seat to Avignon in the fourteenth century familiarized the Italian poets with the songs of the troubadours, and gave a tincture of the Provençal style to their compositions, which is very observable in the poetry of Petrarch and of Dante. The *Divina Comedia* of Dante first introduced the machinery of angels and devils in the room of the Pagan mythology, and is a work containing many examples of the terrible sublime. The *Sonnets* and *Canzoni* of Petrarch are highly tender and pathetic, though vitiated with a quaintness and conceit, which is a prevalent feature of the Italian poetry. The *Decamerone* of Boccacio, a work of the same age, is a masterpiece for invention, ingenious narrative, and acquaintance with human nature. These authors have fixed the standard of the Italian language.

8. Contemporary with them, and of rival merit, was the English Chaucer, who displays all the talents of Boccacio through the medium of excellent poetry. The works of Chaucer discover an extensive knowledge of the

sciences, an acquaintance both with ancient and modern learning, particularly the literature of France and Italy, and, above all, a most acute discernment of life and manners.

9. Of similar character are the poems of Gower, but of a graver cast, and a more chastened morality. Equal to these eminent men, in every species of literary merit, was the accomplished James I. of Scotland, of which his remaining writings bear convincing testimony. The doubtful Rowley of Bristol is said to have adorned the fifteenth century.

10. Spain at this period began to emerge from ignorance and barbarism, and to produce a few of those works which are enumerated with approbation in the whimsical but judicious criticism of Cervantes. (D. Quixote, B. 1. c. 6.)

11. But although poetry attained in those ages a considerable degree of splendour, there was but little advancement in general literature and science. History was disgraced by the intermixture of miracle and fable; though we find much curious information in the writings of Matthew of Westminster, of Walsingham, Everard, Duysburg, and the Chronicles

of Froissart and Monstrelet. Philip de Commines happily describes the reigns of Lewis XI. and Charles VIII. of France. Villani and Platina are valuable recorders of the affairs of Italy.

12. A taste for classical learning in the fifteenth century led to the discovery of many of the ancient authors. Poggio discovered the writings of Quintilian, and several of the compositions of Cicero, which stimulated to farther research, and the recovery of many valuable remains of Greek and Roman literature. But this taste was not generally diffused. France and England were extremely barbarous. The library at Oxford contained only 600 volumes, and there were but four classics in the royal library at Paris. But a brighter period was approaching. The dispersion of the Greeks, on the fall of the Eastern empire, in the end of the fifteenth century, diffused a taste for polite literature over all the west of Europe. A succession of Popes, endowed with a liberal and enlightened spirit, gave every encouragement to learning and the sciences; and, above all, the noble discovery of the *Art of Printing*

contributed to their rapid advancement and dissemination, and gave a certain assurance of the perpetuation of every valuable art, and the progressive improvement of human knowledge.

13. The rise of dramatic composition among the moderns is to be traced to the absurd and ludicrous representation in the churches of the Scripture histories, called in England Mysteries, Miracles, and Moralities. These were first exhibited in the twelfth century, and continued to the sixteenth, when in England they were prohibited by law. Of these we have amusing specimens in Warton's history of English poetry. Profane Dramas were substituted in their place; and a mixture of the sacred and profane appears to have been known in France as early as 1300. In Spain the farcical mysteries keep their ground to the present day; nor was it till the end of the sixteenth century that any regular composition for the stage was known in that country. The Italians are allowed by their own writers to have borrowed their theatre from the French and English.

XXXV.

VIEW OF THE PROGRESS OF COMMERCE IN EUROPE BEFORE THE PORTUGUESE DISCOVERIES.

1. BEFORE giving an account of the discoveries of the Portuguese in the fifteenth century, in exploring a new route to India, we shall present a short view of the progress of commerce in Europe down to that period.

The boldest naval enterprise of the ancients was the Periplus of Hanno, who sailed (570 B. C.) from Carthage to the coast of Guinea, within four or five degrees of the line. Africa was not known by the ancients to be almost circumnavigable. They had a very limited knowledge of the habitable earth. They believed that both the torrid and frigid zones were uninhabitable; and they were but very imperfectly acquainted with a great part of Europe, Asia, and Africa. Denmark, Sweden, Prussia, Poland, the greatest part of Russia, were unknown to them. In Ptolemy's de-

scription of the globe, the 63d degree of latitude is the limit of the earth to the North, the equinoctial to the South.

2. Britain was circumnavigated in the time of Domitian. The Romans frequented it for the purposes of commerce; and Tacitus mentions London as a celebrated resort of merchants. The commerce of the ancients was, however, chiefly confined to the Mediterranean. In the flourishing periods of the Constantinopolitan empire, the merchandise of India was imported from Alexandria; but, after the conquest of Egypt by the Arabians, it was carried up the Indus, and thence by land to the Oxus, which then ran into the Caspian sea; thence it was brought up the Wolga, and again carried over land to the Don, whence it descended into the Euxine.

3. After the fall of the Western empire, commerce was long at a stand in Europe.—When Attila was ravaging Italy the Veneti took refuge in the small islands at the northern extremity of the Adriatic, and there founded Venice, A. D. 452, which began very early to equip small fleets, and trade to

the coasts of Egypt and the Levant, for spices and other merchandise of Arabia and India. Genoa, Florence, and Pisa, imitated this example, and began to acquire considerable wealth; but Venice retained her superiority over these rival states, and gained considerable territories on the opposite coast of Illyricum and Dalmatia.

4. The maritime cities of Italy profited by the crusades, in furnishing the armies with supplies, and bringing home the produce of the East. The Italian merchants established manufactures similar to those of Constantinople. Rogero King of Sicily brought artisans from Athens, and established a silk manufacture at Palermo in 1130. The sugar-cane was planted in Sicily in the twelfth century, and thence carried to Madeira, and finally made its way to the West Indies.

5. In the twelfth and thirteenth centuries, the Italians were the only commercial people of Europe. Venice set the first example of a national bank in 1157, which has maintained its credit to the present times. The only trade of France, Spain, and Germany, at this

time, was carried on at stated fairs and markets, to which traders resorted from all quarters, paying a tax to the Sovereigns or the Lords of the territory. The more enterprising bought a privilege of exemption, by paying at once a large sum, and were thence called *free traders*.

6. In the middle ages, the Italian merchants, usually called Lombards, were the factors of all the European nations, and were enticed, by privileges granted by the Sovereigns, to settle in France, Spain, Germany, and England. They were not only traders in commodities, but bankers, or money-dealers; but they found in this last business a severe restraint from the Canon law prohibiting the taking of interest; and hence, from the necessary privacy of their bargains, there were no bounds to exorbitant usury. The Jews, too, who were the chief dealers in money, brought disrepute on the trade of banking, and frequently suffered, on that account, the most intolerable persecution and confiscation of their fortunes. To guard against these injuries, they invented *Bills of Exchange*.

7. The Lombard merchants awakened a spirit of commerce, and gave birth to manufactures, which were generally encouraged by the Sovereigns in the different kingdoms of Europe. Among the chief encouragements was the institution of corporations or monopolies, the earliest of which are traced up to the eleventh century; a policy beneficial and perhaps necessary where the spirit of industry is low, and manufactures are in their infancy, but of hurtful consequence where trade and manufactures are flourishing.

8. Commerce began to spread towards the north of Europe about the end of the twelfth century. The sea-ports on the Baltic traded with France and Britain, and with the Mediterranean by the staple of the Isle of Oleron, near the mouth of the Garonne, then possessed by the English. The commercial laws of Oleron and Wisbuy (on the Baltic) regulated for many ages the trade of Europe. To protect their trade from piracy, Lubec, Hamburgh, and most of the northern seaports, joined in a confederacy, under certain general regulations, termed the *League of the Hanse-towns*; an union so beneficial in its

nature, and so formidable in point of strength, as to have its alliance courted by the predominant powers of Europe.

9. For the trade of the Hanse-towns with the southern kingdoms, Bruges on the coast of Flanders was found a convenient entrepôt, and thither the Mediterranean merchants brought the commodities of India and the Levant, to exchange with the produce and manufactures of the North. The Flemings now began to encourage trade and manufactures, which thence spread to the Brabanters; but their growth being checked by the impolitic Sovereigns of those provinces, they found a more favourable field in England, which was destined thence to derive the great source of its national opulence.

10. The Britons had very early seen the importance of commerce. Bede relates that London, in 614, was frequented by foreigners for the purpose of trade; and William of Malmesbury speaks of it, in 1041, as a most populous and wealthy city. The cinque ports, Dover, Hastings, Hythe, Romney, and Sandwich, obtained in that age their privileges and immunities, on condition of furnishing each

five ships of war. These ports are now eight in number, and send their members to parliament.

11. The woollen manufacture of England was considerable in the twelfth century. Henry II. incorporated the weavers of London, and gave them various privileges. By a law passed in his reign, all cloth made of foreign wool was condemned to be burnt. Scotland at this time seems to have possessed a considerable source of wealth, as is evident from the payment of the ransom of William the Lion, which was 10,000 merks, equal to £100,000 sterling of present money. The English found it difficult to raise double that sum for the ransom of Richard I., and the Scots contributed a proportion of it. The English Sovereigns at first drew a considerable revenue from the custom on wool exported to be manufactured abroad; but becoming soon sensible of the benefit of encouraging its home manufacture, they invited, for that purpose, the foreign artisans and merchants to reside in England, and gave them valuable immunities. Edward III. was peculiarly attentive to trade and

manufactures, as appears by the laws passed in his reign, and he was bountiful in the encouragement of foreign artisans. The succeeding reigns were not so favourable; and during the civil wars of York and Lancaster, the spirit of trade and manufactures greatly declined; nor was it till the accession of Henry VII. that they began once more to revive and flourish. In that interval, however, of their decay in England, commerce and the arts were encouraged in Scotland by James I. and his successors, as much as the comparatively rude and turbulent state of the kingdom would permit. The herring fishery then began to be vigorously promoted; and the duties laid on the exportation of woollen cloth show that this manufacture was then considerable among the Scots. Glasgow began, in 1420, to acquire wealth by the fisheries, but had little or no foreign trade till after the discovery of America and the West Indies.

12. Henry VII. gave the most liberal encouragement to trade and manufactures, particularly the woollen, by inviting foreign artisans, and establishing them at Leeds, Wake-

field, Halifax, &c. The navigation acts were passed in his reign, and commercial treaties formed with the continental kingdoms, for the protection of the merchant-shipping. Such was the state of commerce at the time when the Portuguese made those great discoveries which opened a new route to India, and gave a circulation to its wealth over most of the nations of Europe.

XXXVI.

DISCOVERIES OF THE PORTUGUESE IN THE FIFTEENTH CENTURY, AND THEIR EFFECTS ON THE COMMERCE OF EUROPE.

1. THE polarity of the magnet had been known in Europe as early as the thirteenth century, but the compass was not used in sailing till the middle of the fourteenth; and another century had elasped from that period, while yet the European mariners scarcely ventured out of the sight of their coasts. The eastern ocean was little other-

wise known than by name; and the Atlantic was supposed to be a boundless expanse of sea, extending probably to the Eastern shores of Asia. In the belief that the torrid zone was uninhabitable, a promontory on the African coast, in the 29th degree of north latitude, was termed Cape Non, as forming an impassable limit.

2. In the beginning of the fifteenth century, John King of Portugal sent a few vessels to explore the African coast; and these doubling Cape Non proceeded to Cape Boyador, within two degrees of the northern tropic. Prince Henry, the son of John, equipped a single ship, which, being driven out to sea, landed on the island of Porto Santo. This involuntary experiment imboldened the mariners to abandon their timid mode of coasting, and launch into the open sea. In 1420, the Portuguese discovered Madeira, where they established a colony, and planted the Cyprus vine and the sugar-cane.

3. The spirit of enterprise thus awakened, Prince Henry obtained from Eugene IV. a bull granting to the Portuguese the property of all the countries they might discover be-

tween Cape Non and India. Under John I. of Portugal, the Cape Verd Islands were discovered and colonised; and the fleets, advancing to the coast of Guinea, brought home gold-dust, gums, and ivory. Passing the equator, the Portuguese entered a new hemisphere, and boldly proceeded to the extremity of the continent. In 1479, a fleet under Vasco de Gama doubled the Cape of Good Hope, and sailing onwards beyond the mouths of the Arabian and Persian Gulfs, arrived at Calicut, on the Malabar coast, after a voyage of 1500 leagues, performed in thirteen months.

4. De Gama entered into an alliance with the Rajah of Calicut, a tributary of the Mogul empire, and returned to Lisbon with specimens of the wealth and produce of the country. A succeeding fleet formed settlements; and vanquishing the opposition of the native princes, soon achieved the conquest of all the coast of Malabar. The city of Goa, taken by storm, became the residence of a Portuguese viceroy, and the capital of their Indian settlements.

5. The Venetians, who had hitherto engrossed the Indian trade by Alexandria, now lost it for ever. After an ineffectual project of cutting through the isthmus of Suez, they attempted to intercept the Portuguese by their fleets stationed at the mouth of the Red Sea, and Persian Gulf, but were every where encountered by a superior force. The Portuguese made settlements in both the gulfs, and vigorously prosecuted their conquests on the Indian coast and sea. The rich island of Ceylon, the kingdoms of Pegu, Siam, and Malacca, were speedily subdued, and a settlement established in Bengal. They proceeded onward to China, hitherto scarcely known to the Europeans but by the account of a single Venetian traveller, Marco Paolo, in the thirteenth century; and they obtained the Emperor's permission to form a settlement at Macao; thus opening a commerce with that immense empire, and the neighbouring islands of Japan. In the space of fifty years, the Portuguese were masters of the whole trade of the Indian Ocean, and sovereigns of a large extent of Asiatic territory.

6. These discoveries produced a wonderful effect on the commerce of Europe. The produce of the spice islands was computed to be worth annually 200,000 ducats to Lisbon. The Venetians, after every effort to destroy the trade of the Portuguese, offered to become sole purchasers of all the spice brought to Europe, but were refused. Commercial industry was roused in every quarter, and manufactures made a rapid progress. Lyons, Tours, Abbeville, Marseilles, Bourdeaux, acquired immense wealth. Antwerp and Amsterdam became the great marts of the north. The former owed its splendour to the decline of Bruges, which was ruined by civil commotions; and the Portuguese made Antwerp their entrepôt for the supply of the northern kingdoms. It continued highly flourishing till the revolt of the Netherlands, in the end of the sixteenth century, when it was taken by the Spaniards, and its port destroyed by blocking up the Scheldt.

7. The trade of Holland rose on the fall of Antwerp. Amsterdam had become considerable after the decline of the Hanseatic confederacy in 1428, but rose into splendour and

high commercial opulence from the destruction of Antwerp: and the United Provinces, dependent on industry alone for their support, became a model of commercial activity to all other nations.

8. It is not to be doubted that Britain felt the effect of that general stimulus which the Portuguese discoveries gave to the trade of Europe; but other causes had a more sensible operation to that end in England. The Reformation, by suppressing the convents, and restoring many thousands to society, and the cutting off the Papal exactions, which drained the kingdom of its wealth, the politic laws passed in the reign of Henry VIII. and the active patriotism of Elizabeth, were vigorous incentives to national industry.

9. From the time of Henry VIII. to the present, the commerce and manufactures of England have been uniformly progressive. The rental of England in lands and houses did not then exceed five millions *per annum*; it is now above eighteen millions. The unmanufactured wool of one year's growth is supposed to be worth two millions; when manufactured, as it now is, by British hands,

instead of being sent abroad as formerly for that purpose, it is worth eight millions. Above a million and a half of hands are employed in that manufacture alone; half a million are employed in the manufactures of iron, steel, copper, brass, lead; the linen manufactures of England, Scotland, and Ireland, occupy near a million; and a number not much inferior is employed in the fisheries. It is presumable, on the whole, that nearly a fourth of the population of the United Kingdom is actually employed in commerce and manufactures.

10. The vast increase of the national wealth of Britain appears chiefly, 1. From the increase of population, which is supposed to be nearly five to one (at least in the large cities) since the reign of Elizabeth; 2. From the great addition made to the cultivated lands of the kingdom, and the high improvement of agriculture since that period, whence more than quadruple the quantity of food is produced; 3. From the increase of the commercial shipping, at least six-fold within the same time; 4. From the comparative low rate of interest, which is demonstrative of the increase of wealth. The consequences of the

diffusion of the commercial spirit are most important to the national welfare: From general industry arises influence, joined to a spirit of independence; and on this spirit rests the freedom of the British constitution, and all the blessings we enjoy under its protection.

XXXVII.

GERMANY AND FRANCE IN THE REIGNS OF CHARLES V. AND FRANCIS I.

1. WE resume the detail of the history of Europe at the beginning of the sixteenth century; previously remarking, that the Germanic empire continued for above fifty years in a state of languid tranquillity, from the time of Albert II., the successor of Sigismund, during the long reign of Frederick III., whose son Maximilian acquired, by his marriage with Mary Duchess of Burgundy, the sovereignty of the Netherlands. Maximilian was elected Emperor in 1493; and, by establishing a perpetual peace between the separate Germanic

states, laid the foundation of the subsequent grandeur of the empire.

2. Philip Archduke of Austria, son of Maximilian, married Jane, the daughter of Ferdinand and Isabella; and of that marriage the eldest son was Charles V., who succeeded to the throne of Spain in 1516, and who, on the death of his grandfather Maximilian, preferred his claim to the vacant imperial throne. He had for his competitor Francis I. of France, who had distinguished himself by the conquest of the Milanese, and the adjustment of the contending interests of the Italian states. The German Electors, afraid of the exorbitant power both of Charles and of Francis, would have rejected both, and conferred the imperial crown on Frederick Duke of Saxony; but this extraordinary man declined the proffered dignity, and his counsel determined the election in favour of Charles of Austria, 1519.

3. Charles V. and Francis I. were now declared enemies, and their mutual claims on each other's dominions were the subject of perpetual hostility. The Emperor claimed Artois as part of the Netherlands. Francis

prepared to make good his right to the two Sicilies. Charles had to defend Milan, and support his title to Navarre, which had been wrested from France by his grandfather Ferdinand. Henry VIII. of England was courted by the rival monarchs, as the weight of England was sufficient to turn the scale, where the power of each was nearly balanced.

4. The first hostile attack was made by Francis on the kingdom of Navarre, which he won and lost in the course of a few months. The Emperor attacked Picardy, and his troops at the same time drove the French out of the Milanese. On the death of Leo X., Charles placed Cardinal Adrian on the Papal throne, 1521; and by the promise of elevating Wolsey, the minister of Henry VIII., to that dignity, on the death of Adrian, gained the alliance of the English monarch in his war against France.

5. At this critical time Francis imprudently quarrelled with his best general, the Constable of Bourbon, who, in revenge, deserted to the Emperor, and was by him invested with the chief command of his armies. The imperial generals were far superior in abilities to their

opponents. The French were defeated at Biagrassa, and Charles was carrying every thing before him in Italy, when Francis entered the Milanese, and retook the capital; but, in the subsequent battle of Pavia, his troops were entirely defeated, and the French monarch became the Constable of Bourbon's prisoner, 1525.

6. The Emperor made no advantage of his good fortune. By the treaty of Madrid Francis regained his liberty, on yielding to Charles the duchy of Burgundy, and the superiority of Flanders and Artois. He gave his two sons as hostages for the fulfilment of these conditions; but the states refused to ratify them, and the failure was conpromised for a sum of money.

7. On a renewal of the war, Henry VIII. took part with France, and Charles lost an opportunity of obtaining the sovereignty of Italy. The papal army in the French interest was defeated by the Constable of Bourbon, and the Pope himself made prisoner; but Bourbon was killed in the siege of Rome, and Charles allowed the Pope to purchase his release.

8. After the conclusion of the peace of Cambray, 1529, Charles visited Italy, and received the imperial diadem from Pope Clement VII. The Turks having invaded Hungary, the Emperor marched against them in person, and compelled the Sultan Solyman, with an army of 300,000 men, to evacuate the country. He soon after embarked for Africa, to replace the dethroned Muley Hassan in the sovereignty of Tunis and Algiers, which had been usurped by Hayradin Barbarossa, and he achieved the enterprise with honour. His reputation exceeded at this period that of all the Sovereigns of Europe, both for political ability, for real power, and the extent and opulence of his dominions.

9. Francis was glad to ally himself even with the Turks to cope with the Imperialists, and Barbarossa invaded Italy; but the troops of Charles prevented the co-operation of the French, and separately defeated and dispersed the allied powers, while another army of the Imperialists ravaged Champagne and Picardy.

10. In the interval of a truce, which was concluded at Nice for ten years between the

rival monarchs, Charles passed through France to the Netherlands, and was entertained by Francis with the most magnificent hospitality. He had promised to grant to the French King his favourite desire, the investiture of Milan; but, failing to keep his word, the war was renewed with double animosity. The French and Turkish fleets attacked Nice, but were dispersed by the Genoese admiral, Andrea Doria. In Italy the French were victorious in the battle of Cerizoles, but drew no benefit from this partial advantage. The Imperialists on the whole had a decided superiority, and France must have been undone, had not the disorders of Germany, from the contending interests of the Catholics and Protestants, forced the Emperor to conclude the treaty of Crépi with Francis, 1544; who, at the same time, purchased a peace with Henry VIII., who had once more taken part with his rival. Francis died soon after, 1547; a prince of great spirit and abilities, and of a generous and noble mind, unfortunate only from the necessity of struggling against a power which overmatched him both in policy and in resources.

11. A short time before this period was founded (1535) the order of the Jesuits by Ignatius Loyola. The principle of the order was implicit obedience and submission to the Pope. The brethren were not confined to their cloisters, but allowed to mix with the world; and thus, by gaining the confidence of princes and statesmen, they were enabled to direct the policy of nations to the great end of establishing the supreme authority of the Holy See. The wealth they accumulated, the extent of their power, and the supposed consequences of their intrigues to the peace of nations, excited at length a general hostility to their order; and the institution has recently been abolished in all the kingdoms of Europe.

12. If Charles V. aimed at universal empire, he was ever at a distance from the object of his wishes. The formidable confederacy of the Protestants to preserve their liberties and their religion, gave him perpetual disquiet in Germany. He never could form his dominions into a well connected body, from the separate national interests of the Spaniards, Flemish, and Germans; and even

the Imperial states were divided by their jealousies, political and religious. The hostilities of foreign powers gave him continual annoyance. He found in Henry II., the successor of Francis, an antagonist as formidable as his father. His cares and difficulties increased as he advanced in life, and at length entirely broke the vigour of his mind. In a state of melancholy despondency, he retired from the world at the age of fifty-six, resigning first the kingdom of Spain to his son Philip II., 1556, and afterwards the Imperial crown in favour of his brother Ferdinand, who was elected Emperor 24th February, 1558.

XXXVIII.

OBSERVATIONS ON THE CONSTITUTION OF THE GERMAN EMPIRE.

1. Previous to the reign of Maximilian I., the Germanic empire was subject to all the disorders of the feudal governments. The general diets of the states were tumultuous and indecisive, and their constant wars with each other kept the whole in anarchy and barbarism. Wenceslaus, in 1383, endeavoured to remedy these evils by the enactment of a general peace; but no effectual means were taken for securing it. Albert II. attempted to accomplish the same end, and had some success. He divided Germany into six circles, each regulated by its own diet; but the jealousies of the states prompted them constantly to hostilities, which there was no superior power sufficient to restrain.

2. At length Maximilian I. procured, in 1500, that solemn enactment which established a perpetual peace among the Germanic states, under the cogent penalty of the aggressor being treated as a common enemy. He established the Imperial Chamber for the settlement of all differences. The empire was divided anew into ten circles, each sending its representatives to the Imperial Chamber, and bound to enforce the public laws through its own territory. A regency was appointed to subsist in the intervals of the diet, composed of twenty members, over whom the Emperor presided.

3. These regulations, however wise, would probably have failed of their end, but for the influence of the house of Austria, which has for three centuries continued to occupy the Imperial throne. The ambition and policy of Charles V. would have been dangerous to the freedom of the German princes, had not the new system of preserving a balance of power in Europe made these princes find allies and protectors sufficient to traverse the Emperor's schemes of absolute dominion. He attained,

however, an authority far beyond that of any of his predecessors. The succeeding Emperors imitated his policy, but without his talents, and therefore found yet stronger obstacles to their encroachments on the freedom of the states.

4. The Germanic liberties were settled for the last time by the treaty of Westphalia, in 1648, which fixed the Emperor's prerogatives, and the privileges of the states. The constitution of the empire is not framed for the ordinary ends of government, the prosperity and happiness of the people. It regards not the rights of the subjects, but only the independence of the several princes; and its sole object is to maintain each in the enjoyment of its sovereignty, and prevent usurpations, and encroachments on each other's territories. It has no relation to the particular government of the states, each of which has its own laws and constitution, some more free, and others more despotic.

5. The general diet has the power of enacting the public laws of the empire. It consists of three colleges, the Electors, the Princes, and the Free Cities. All such public laws, and all general measures, are the subject of the se-

parate deliberation of the electoral college and that of the princes. When jointly approved by them, the resolution is canvassed by the college of the Free Cities, and, if agreed to, becomes a *placitum* of the empire. If approved finally by the Emperor, it is a *conclusum* or general law. If disapproved, the resolution is of no effect. Moreover, the Emperor must be the proposer of all general laws. Still further, no complaint or request can be made by any of the princes to the diet without the approbation of the Elector Archbishop of Mentz, who may refuse it at his pleasure. These constitutional defects are the more hurtful in their consequences from the separate and often contending interests of the princes, who have all the rights of sovereignty, the power of contracting foreign alliances, and are frequently possessed of foreign dominions of far greater value than their Imperial territories.

6. The Germanic consitution has, however, in some respects its advantages. The particular diets of each circle tend to unite those princes in all matters of national concern, whatever may be the discordance of their individual interests. The regulations made in

those diets make up for the want of a general legislative power. Besides the circular diets, the Electors, the Princes, the Free Cities, the Catholics, and the Protestants, hold their particular diets, when their common interests require it; and these powers balance each other. Considered, therefore, solely in the light of a league of several independent princes and states associating for their common benefit, the Germanic constitution has many advantages, in promoting general harmony, securing the rights of its members, and preventing the weak from being oppressed by the strong.

XXXIX.

OF THE REFORMATION IN GERMANY AND SWITZERLAND, AND THE REVOLUTION IN DENMARK AND SWEDEN.

1. THE age of Charles V. is the era of the Reformation of religion, of the discovery of the New World, and of the highest splendour of the fine arts in Italy and the south of Europe. We shall treat in order of each of these great objects; and, first, of the Reformation.

The voluptuous taste and the splendid projects of Pope Leo X. demanding large supplies of money, he instituted through all the Christian kingdoms a sale of indulgences, or remittances from the pains of purgatory. This traffic being abused to the most shocking purposes, Martin Luther, an Augustine friar, took upon him to preach against it, and to inveigh with acrimony against the power which authorised it. He found many willing hearers, particularly in the electorate of Saxony, of which the Prince Frederick was his friend and

protector. Leo X. condemned his tenets by a Papal bull, which only increased the zeal and indignation of the preacher. In a book he published, called the *Babylonish Captivity*, he applied all the scriptural attributes of the whore of Babylon to the Papal hierarchy, and attacked with equal force and virulence the doctrines of transubstantiation, purgatory, the celibacy of the priests, and the refusal of wine in the communion to the people. The book being condemned to the flames, Luther took upon him to burn the Pope's bull and the decretals at Wittemberg, 1520.

2. One of the first champions who took up the pen against Luther was Henry VIII. of England, whose book, presented to Pope Leo, procured him the title, now annexed to his crown, of Defender of the Faith. The rest of Europe seemed to pay little attention to these rising controversies. Charles V., studious of the friendship of the Pope, took part against Luther, and summoned him to answer for his doctrines in the diet of Worms. The Reformer defended himself with great spirit, and, aided by his friend the Elector, made a safe escape into Saxony, where the mass was now

universally abolished, the images destroyed, and the convents shut up. The friars and nuns returned to the world, and Luther took a nun for his wife. Nor did these secularised priests abuse their new freedom, for their manners were decent, and their life exemplary.

3. Erasmus has justly censured the impolicy of the Catholic clergy in their modes of resisting and suppressing the new doctrines. They allowed them to be discussed in sermons before the people, and employed for that purpose furious and bigotted declaimers, who only increased and widened differences. They would not yield in the most insignificant trifle, nor acknowledge a single fault; and they persecuted with the utmost cruelty all whose opinions were not agreeable to their own standard of faith. How wise is the counsel of Lord Bacon! "There is no better way to "stop the rise of new sects and schisms, than "to reform abuses, compound the lesser dif-"ferences, proceed mildly from the first, re-"frain from sanguinary persecutions, and "rather to soften and win the principal lead-"ers, by gracing and advancing them, than

"to enrage them by violence and bitterness." (*Bac. Mor. Ess. Sect.* 1. *Ess.* 12.)

4. Switzerland followed in the path of reformation. Zuinglius of Zurich preached forth the new tenets with such zeal and effect, that the whole canton were his converts, and the senate publicly abolished the mass, and purified the churches. Berne took the same measures with yet greater solemnity, after a discussion in the senate which lasted two months. Bâle imitated the same example. Others of the cantons armed in defence of their faith; and in a desperate engagement, in which the Protestants were defeated, Zuinglius was slain, 1531.

5. Lutheranism was now making its progress towards the north of Europe. Sweden, Denmark, and Norway, were at this time governed by Christiern II., the Nero of the north. The Swedes, reluctantly submitting to the yoke, were kept in awe by Troll, Archbishop of Upsal, a faithful minister of the tyrant in all his schemes of oppression and cruelty. On intelligence of a revolt, the King and his primate, armed with a bull from Pope Leo X., massacred the whole body of the nobles

and senators, amidst the festivity of a banquet. Gustavus Vasa, grand-nephew of Charles Canutson, formerly King of Sweden, escaped from this carnage, and concealed himself in the mines of Dalecarlia. By degrees assembling a small army, he defeated the generals of Christiern, whose cruelties at length determined the united nations to vindicate their rights, by a solemn sentence of deposition. The tyrant fled to Flanders, and Frederick Duke of Holstein was elected Sovereign of the three kingdoms, though Sweden, adhering to her heroic deliverer, and the heir of her ancient Kings, acknowledged alone the sovereignty of Gustavus Vasa, 1521. The bull of Leo X. and its bloody consequences, were sufficient to convert Sweden and Denmark to the tenets of the reformed religion. Gustavus enjoyed his sceptre many years in peace, and contributed greatly to the happiness and prosperity of his kingdom.

6. As early as 1525, the states of Saxony, Brunswick, Hesse Cassel, and the cities of Strasburgh and Frankfort, had embraced the doctrines of the Reformation. Luther had now a species of spiritual control, which he

exercised by the medium of a synod of six reformers. His successful example gave rise to reformers of different kinds, whose doctrines were less consonant to reason or good policy. Two fanatics of Saxony, Storck and Muncer, condemned infant baptism (hence termed Anabaptists). They preached up universal equality and freedom of religious opinion, but, with singular inconsistency, attempted to propagate their doctrines by the sword. They were defeated at Mulhausen, and Muncer died on a scaffold; but the party seemed to acquire new courage. They surprised Munster, expelled the Bishop, and anointed for their King a tailor named Jack of Leyden, who defended the city with the most desperate courage, but fell at length with his party under the superior force of regular troops. The Anabaptists, thus sanguinary in their orignal tenets and practices, have long ago become peaceable and harmless subjects.

7. The united power of the Pope and Emperor found it impossible to check the progress of the Reformation. The diet of Spires proposed articles of accommodation between

the Lutherans and Catholics. Fourteen cities of Germany, and several of the Electors, protested formally against those articles; and hence the Lutheran party acquired the name of *Protestants*. They presented to the assembly at Augsburg a confession of their faith, which is the standard of the Protestant doctrines.

8. The virtuous lives and conduct of the Protestant leaders, compared with those of the higher clergy among the Catholics, formed a contrast very favourable to the progress of the Reformation. The solemn manner in which the States of Switzerland, and particularly Geneva, had proceeded, in calmly discussing every point of controversy, and yielding only to the force of rational conviction, attracted the respect of all Europe. John Calvin, a Frenchman, becoming a zealous convert to the new doctrines, was the first who gave them a systematic form by his *Institutions*, and enforced their authority by the establishment of synods, consistories, and deacons. The magistracy of Geneva gave these ordinances the authority of the law; and they were adopted by six of the Swiss cantons, by

the Protestants of France, and the Presbyterians of Scotland and England. The ablest advocates of Calvin will find it difficult to vindicate him from the charge of intolerance and the spirit of persecution; but these, which are the vices or defects of the individual, attach not in the least to the doctrines of the Reformation, which are subject to the test of reason, and can derive no blemish or dishonour from the men who propagated them, or even the motives which might influence some of their earliest supports. This observation applies more particularly to the subject of the ensuing section.

XL.

OF THE REFORMATION IN ENGLAND UNDER HENRY VIII. AND HIS SUCCESSORS.

1. WICKLIFFE, in the middle of the fourteenth century, by an attack on the doctrines of transubstantiation, indulgences, and auricular confession, and yet more by translation of the Scriptures into the vernacular tongue, had prepared the minds of the people of England for a revolution in religious opinions; but his professed followers were not numerous. The intemperate passions of Henry VIII. were the immediate cause of the Reformation in England. He had been married for eighteen years to Catharine of Spain, aunt of Charles V., by whom he had three children, one of them Mary, afterwards Queen of England; when falling in love with Anna Bullen, he solicited Clement VII. for a divorce from Catharine on the score of her former mar-

riage to his elder brother Arthur. The Pope found himself in the painful dilemma of either affronting the Emperor, or mortally offending the King of England. In hope that the King's passion might cool, he spun off the time by preliminaries and negociations, but to no purpose. Henry was resolutely bent on accomplishing his wishes. The Sorbonne and other French Universities gave an opinion in his favour; and armed with this sanction he caused Cranmer Archbishop of Canterbury to annul his marriage. The repudiated Queen gave place to Anna Bullen. On this occasion Wolsey, the minister of Henry, lost the favour of of his master, by opposing, as was believed, his darling measure.

2. Clement VII., from this specimen of the wayward temper of Henry, resolved to keep well with the Emperor, and issued his bull, condemnatory of the sentence of the Archbishop of Canterbury. Henry immediately proclaimed himself Head of the Church of England; the parliament ratified his title, and the Pope's authority was instantly suppressed

in all his dominions, 1534. He proceeded to abolish the monasteries, and confiscate their treasures and revenues, erecting out of the latter six new bishoprics and a college. The immoralities of the monks were sedulously exposed, the forgery of relics, false miracles, &c. held up to the popular scorn.

3. Yet Henry, though a Reformer, and Pope in his own kingdom, had not renounced the religion of Rome; he was equally an enemy to the tenets of Luther and Calvin, as to the Pope's jurisdiction in England. Inconstant in his affections, and a stranger to all humanity, he removed Anna Bullen from the throne to the scaffold, to gratify a new passion for Jane Seymour, a maid of honour, who happily died about a year after. To her succeeded Anne of Cleves, whom he divorced in nine months, to make way for Catharine Howard. She underwent the same fate with Anna Bullen, on a similar suspicion of infidelity to his bed. His sixth wife, Catharine Parr, with difficulty retained her hazardous elevation, but had the good fortune to survive the tyrant.

4. On the death of Henry VIII., 1547, and the accession of his son Edward VI., the Protestant religion prevailed in England, and was favoured by the Sovereign; but he died at the early age of fifteen, 1553; and the sceptre passed to the hands of his sister Mary, an intolerant Catholic, and most cruel persecutor of the Protestants. In her reign, which was but of five years' duration, above 800 miserable victims were burnt at a stake, martyrs to their religious opinions. Mary inherited a congenial spirit with her husband, Philip II. of Spain, whose intolerance cost him the loss of a third part of his dominions.

5. Mary was succeeded (1558) by her sister Elizabeth, the daughter of Anna Bullen, a Protestant, and the more zealous from an abhorrence of the character of her predecessor. In her reign the religion of England became stationary. The hierarchy was established in its present form, by archbishops, bishops, priests, and deacons, the King being by law the Head of the Church. The liturgy had been settled in the reign of Edward VI. The canons are agreeable chiefly to the Lutheran tenets.

Of the Reformation in Scotland, we shall afterwards treat under a separate section.

XLI.

OF THE DISCOVERY AND CONQUEST OF AMERICA.

1. AMONG those great events which distinguished the age of Charles V., was the conquest of Mexico by Ferdinando Cortez, and of Peru by the Pizarros. The discovery of America had preceded the first of these events about twenty-seven years; but we have postponed the mention of it till now, that the whole may be shortly treated in connection.

Christopher Columbus, a Genoese, a man of enterprising spirit, having in vain solicited encouragement from his native state, from Portugal, and from England, to attempt discoveries in the western seas, applied to Ferdinand and Isabella of Spain, who furnished him with three small ships, ninety men, and a few thousand ducats for the

charges of his voyage. After thirty-three days sail from the Canaries, he discovered San Salvador, and soon after the islands of Cuba and Hispaniola; whence returning, accompanied with some of the natives, some presents in gold, and curiosities of the country, he was treated by the Spaniards with the highest honours, and soon supplied with a suitable armament for the prosecution of his discoveries. In his second voyage he discovered the Caribbees and Jamaica. In a third voyage he descried the continent of America, within ten degrees of the line, towards the isthmus of Panama. To this continent the Geographer Americus, who, five years after, followed the footsteps of Columbus, had the undeserved honour of giving his name.

2. The inhabitants of America and its Islands were a race of men quite new to the Europeans. They are of the colour of copper, and have no beard. In some quarters, as in Mexico and Peru, the Spaniards found a flourishing empire, and a people polished, refined, and luxurious. In others, man was a naked savage, the member of a wandering

tribe, whose sole occupation was hunting or war. The savages of the continent were characterised alike by their cruelty to their enemies, their contempt of death, and their generous affection for their friends. The inhabitants of the islands were a milder race, of gentler manners, and less hardy conformation of body and mind. The larger animals, as the horse, the cow, were unknown in America.

3. To the inhabitants of those new-discovered countries, which were believed to contain inexhaustible treasures, the Spaniards, under the pretence of religion and policy, conducted themselves with the most shocking inhumanity. The rack, the scourge, the faggot, were employed to convert them to Christianity. They were hunted down like wild beasts, or burnt alive in their thickets and fastnesses. Hispaniola, containing three millions of inhabitants, and Cuba, containing above six hundred thousand, were, in a few years, absolutely depopulated. It was now resolved to explore the continent; and Ferdinando Cortez, with eleven ships and 617 men, sailed for that purpose from

Cuba in 1519. Landing at Tabasco, he advanced, though with a brave opposition from the natives, into the heart of the country. The state of Tlascala, after ineffectual resistance, became the ally of the Spaniards; and, on their approach to Mexico, the terror of their name had paved the way for an easy conquest.

4. The Mexican empire, though founded little more than a century before this period, had arisen to great splendour. Its Sovereign Montezuma received the invaders with the reverence due to superior beings. But a short acquaintance opened the eyes of the Mexicans; and finding nothing in the Spaniards beyond what was human, they were daring enough to attack, and put to death a few of them. The intrepid Cortez immediately marched to the palace with fifty men, and putting the Emperor in irons, carried him off prisoner to his camp. The astonished Mexicans submitted to every term, and agreed to redeem their sovereign by the surrender of all the imperial treasures.

5. Velasquez, governor of Cuba, jealous of Cortez, attempted to supersede him, by dispatching a superior army to the continent; but the latter defeating his troops, compelled

them to join his own banners. In an attack from the Mexicans for the rescue of their Sovereign, Montezuma having offered to mediate between the Mexicans and their enemies, was indignantly put to death by one of his own subjects. The whole empire, under its new Sovereign, Guatimozin, was now armed against the Spaniards; and while the plains were covered with their archers and spearmen, the lake of Mexico was filled with armed canoes. To oppose the latter, the Spaniards built a few vessels under the walls of their city, and soon evinced their superiority on both elements to their feeble foe. The monarch was taken prisoner by the officers of Cortez, and refusing to discover his treasures, was stretched naked on burning coals. Soon after, on the discovery of a conspiracy against the Spaniards, the wretched Guatimozin, with all the princes of his blood, were executed on a gibbet. This was the last blow to the power of the Mexicans, and Cortez was now absolute master of the whole empire, 1527.

6. In the same year, 1527, Diego D'Almagro, and Francis Pizarro, with 250 foot, 60 horse, and 12 small pieces of cannon, landed

in Peru, a large and flourishing empire, governed by an ancient race of monarchs named Incas. The Inca Atabalipa receiving the Spaniards with reverence, they immediately required him to embrace the Christian faith, and surrender all his dominions to the Emperor Charles V., who had obtained a gift of them from the Pope. The proposal being misunderstood, or received with hesitation, Pizarro seized the monarch as his prisoner, while his troops massacred 5000 of the Peruvians on the spot. The empire was now plundered of prodigious treasures in gold and precious stones; but Atabalipa, being suspected of concealing a part from his insatiable invaders, was solemnly tried as a criminal, and strangled at a stake.

7. The courage of the Spaniards surpassed even their inhumanity. D'Almagro marched 500 leagues, through continual opposition, to Cusco, and penetrated across the Cordilleras into Chili, two degrees beyond the southern tropic. He was slain in a civil war between him and his associate Francis Pizarro, who was soon after assassinated by the party of his rival. At this time the Spaniards discovered

the inexhaustible silver mines of Potosi, which they compelled the Peruvians to work for their advantage. They are now wrought by the negroes of Africa. The native Peruvians, who are a weakly race of men, were soon almost exterminated by cruelty and intolerable labour. The humane Bishop of Chiapa remonstrated with success to Charles V. on this subject, and the residue of this miserable people have been since treated with more indulgence.

8. The Spanish acquisitions in America belong to the crown and not to the state: they are the absolute property of the Sovereign, and regulated solely by his will. They are governed by the three viceroys of Mexico, Peru, and Terra Firma, who exercise supreme civil and military authority over their provinces. There are eleven courts of audience for the administration of justice, with whose judicial proceedings the viceroys cannot interfere; and their judgments are subject to appeal to the Royal Council of the Indies, whose jurisdiction extends to every department, ecclesiastical, civil, military, and commercial. A tribunal

in Spain, called *Casa de la Contratacion*, regulates the departure of the fleets, and their destination and equipment, under the control of the Council of the Indies.

9. The gold and silver of Spanish America, though the exclusive property of the crown of Spain, has, by means of wars, marriages of princes, and extension of commerce, come into general circulation, and has greatly increased the quantity of specie, and diminished the value of money over all Europe.

XLII.

POSSESSIONS OF THE OTHER EUROPEAN NATIONS IN AMERICA.

1. The example of the Spaniards excited a desire in the other nations of Europe to participate with them in the riches of the New World. The French, in 1557, attempted to form a settlement on the coast of Brazil, where the Portuguese had already established

themselves from the beginning of the century. The colony was divided by faction, and was soon utterly destroyed by the Portuguese. It is one of the richest of the American settlements, both from the produce of its soil, and its mines of gold and precious stones.

2. The Spaniards were in possession of Florida, when the French attempted to colonise it in 1564, but without success. The French then established a settlement in Canada, and founded Quebec in 1608; but the colony was perpetually subject to attack from the English. In 1629 the French had not a foot of territory in America. Canada has been repeatedly taken by the English, and restored, by different treaties, to the French; but it has now for many years been permanently a British settlement. The French drew their greatest advantages from the islands of St. Domingo, Guadaloupe, and Martinico. From their continental possessions of Louisiana, and the settlements on the Mississippi, which they have now lost, they never derived any solid benefit.

3. The Dutch have no other settlement on the continent of America but Surinam, a part

of Guiana; and, in the West Indies, the islands of Curassoa and St. Eustatius. The Danes possess the inconsiderable islands of St. Thomas and Santa Cruz.

4. The British have extensive settlements on the continent of America, and the West India islands. England derived her right to her settlements in North America from the first discovery of the country by Sebastian Cabot in 1499, a few years after the discovery of South America by Columbus; but there were no attempts to colonise any part of the country till about a century afterwards, when Sir Walter Raleigh planted the colony of Virginia, so named in honour of his Queen. Nova Scotia was planted under James I., and New England in the reign of Charles I., chiefly by the refugee Puritans. New York and Pennsylvania were in the hands of the Dutch, till conquered by the English in the reign of Charles II., who granted a gift of the latter province, with a charter of privileges, to William Penn the Quaker. Maryland was colonised in the time of Charles I. by English Catholics. The Carolinas were settled in the reign of Charles II. Georgia

was not colonised till the reign of George II. The Floridas were ceded to Britain by Spain at the peace of 1763.

5. The British American colonies, under which name we include the United States, are greatly inferior in natural riches to those of the Spaniards, as they produce neither silver nor gold, indigo nor cochineal; but they are in general of fertile soil, and highly improved by industry; and they afford a most profitable market for home manufactures. The produce of the West India islands, Jamaica, Barbadoes, St. Christopher's, Antigua, the Granadas, &c. in sugar, cotton, tobacco, &c. is of very great value to the mother-country.

XLIII.

OF THE STATE OF THE FINE ARTS IN EUROPE IN THE AGE OF LEO X.

1. In enumerating those great objects which characterised the end of the fifteenth and beginning of the sixteenth century, we remarked the high advancement to which the fine arts attained in Europe in the age of Leo X. The strong bent which the human mind seems to take in certain periods to one class of pursuits in preference to all others, as in that age to the fine arts of painting, sculpture, and architecture, may be in part accounted for from moral causes; such as the peaceful state of a country, the genius or taste of its Sovereigns, and their liberal encouragement of those arts; the general emulation that arises where one or two artists are of confessed eminence; and the aid which they derive from the studies and works of each other. These causes have doubtless

great influence, but do not seem entirely sufficient to account for the phenomenon. The operation of such causes must be slow and gradual. In the case of the fine arts, the transition from obscurity to splendour was rapid and instantaneous. From the contemptible mediocrity in which they had remained for ages, they rose at one step to the highest pitch of excellence.

2. The arts of painting and sculpture were buried in the West under the ruins of the Roman empire. They gradually declined in the latter ages, as we may perceive by the series of the coins of the lower empire. The Ostrogroths, instead of destroying, sought to preserve the monuments of taste and genius. They were even the inventors of some of the arts dependent on design, as the composition of Mosaic. But, in the middle ages, those arts were at a very low ebb in Europe. They began, however, to revive a little about the end of the thirteenth century. Cimabue, a Florentine, from the sight of the paintings of some Greek artists in one of the churches, began to attempt similar performances, and soon excelled his models. His scholars were,

Ghiotto, Gaddi, Tasi, Cavallini, and Stephano Fiorentino; and these formed an academy at Florence in 1350.

3. The works of these early painters, with some fidelity of imitation, had not a spark of grace or elegance; and such continued to be the state of the art till towards the end of the fifteenth century, when it arose at once to the summit of perfection. Raphael painted at first in the hard manner of his master Perugino; but soon deserted it, and struck at once into the noble, elegant, and graceful; in short, the imitation of the *antique*. This change was the result of genius alone. The ancient sculptures were familiar to the early painters, but they had looked on them with cold indifference. They were now surveyed by other eyes. Michael Angelo, Raphael, and Leonardo da Vinci, were animated by the same genius that formed the Grecian Apelles, Zeuxis, Glycon, Phidias, and Praxiteles.

4. Nor was Italy alone thus distinguished. Germany, Flanders, and Switzerland, produced in the same age artists of consummate merit. Before the notice of these, we shall briefly characterise the schools of Italy.

5. First in order is the school of Florence, of which the most eminent master was Michael Angelo, born in 1474. His works are characterised by a profound knowledge of the anatomy of the human figure, perhaps chiefly formed on the contemplation of the ancient sculptures. His paintings exhibit the grand, the sublime, and terrible; but he drew not from the antique its simple grace and beauty.

6. The Roman school was founded by Raphael d'Urbino, born 1483. This great painter united almost every excellence of the art. In invention, grace, majestic simplicity, forcible expression of the passions, he stands unrivalled, and far beyond all competition. He has borrowed liberally, but without servility, from the antique.

7. Of the school of Lombardy, or the Venetian, the most eminent artists were, Titian, Giorgione, Corregio, and Parmeggiano. Titian is most eminent in portrait, and in the painting of female beauty. Such is the truth of his colouring, that his figures are nature itself. It was the testimony of Michael Angelo to the merits of Titian, that, if he had

studied at Rome or Florence amidst the master-pieces of antiquity, he would have eclipsed all the painters in the world. Giorgione, with similar merits, was cut off in the flower of his youth. Titian lived to the age of an hundred. Corregio was superior in colouring, and knowledge of light and shade, to all that have preceded or followed him. This knowledge was the result of study; in other painters those effects are frequently accidental, as we observe they are not uniform. Parmeggiano imitated the graceful manner of Raphael, but carried it to a degree of affectation.

8. Such were the three original Italian schools. The character of the Florentine is grandeur and sublimity, with great excellence of design, but a want of grace, of skill in colouring, and effect of light and shade. The character of the Roman is equal excellence of design, a grandeur tempered with moderation and simplicity, a high degree of grace and elegance, and a superior knowledge, though not an excellence, in colouring. The character of the Venetian is the perfection of colouring,

and the utmost force of light and shade, with an inferiority in every other particular.

9. To the school of Raphael succeeded the second Roman school, or that of the Caraccis, three brothers, of whom Annibal was the most excellent. His scholars were, Guercino, Albano, Lanfranc, Domenichino, and Guido. Of these, though all eminent painters, the first and last were the most excellent. The elegant contours of Guercino, and the strength, sweetness, and majesty of Guido, are the admiration of all true judges of painting.

10. In the same age, the Flemish school, though of a quite different character, and inferior to the Italian, shone with great lustre. Oil painting was invented by the Flemings in the fifteenth century: and, in that age, Heemskirk, Frans Floris, Quintin Matsys, and the German Albert Durer, were deservedly distinguished. Of the Flemish school Rubens, though a painter of a much later age, is the chief ornament. His figures, though too corpulent, are drawn with great truth and nature, and he possesses inexhaustible invention, and great skill in the

expression of the passions. Switzerland produced Hans Holbein, a painter of great eminence in portrait, and remarkable for truth of colouring. Of his works, from his residence at the court of Henry VIII., there are more specimens in Britain than those of any other foreign painter. — Holland had likewise its painters, whose chief merit was the faithful representation of vulgar nature, and perfect knowledge of the mechanism of the art, the power of colours, and the effect of light and shade.

11. With the art of painting, sculpture and architecture were likewise revived in the same age, and brought to high perfection. The universal genius of Michael Angelo shone equally conspicuous in all the three departments. His statue of Bacchus was judged by Raphael to be the work of Phidias or Praxiteles. — The Grecian architecture was first revived by the Florentines in the fourteenth century; and the cathedral of Pisa was constructed partly from the materials of an ancient Greek temple. The art arrived at high perfection in the age of Leo X., when the church of St. Peter's at Rome, under the

direction of Bramante, San Gallo, Raphael, and Michael Angelo, exhibited the noblest specimen of architecture in the universe.

12. The invention of the art of engraving on copper by Tomaso Finiguerra, a goldsmith of Florence, is dated about 1460. From Italy it travelled into Flanders, where it was first practised by Martin Schoen of Antwerp. His scholar was the celebrated Albert Durer, who engraved with excellence both on copper and on wood. Etching on copper by means of aqua-fortis, which gives more ease than the stroke of the graver, was discovered by Parmeggiano, who executed in that manner his own beautiful designs. No art underwent, in its early stages, so rapid an improvement as that of engraving. In the course of 150 years from its invention, it attained nearly to its perfection; for there has been but little proportional improvement in the last century, since the days of Audran, Poilly, and Edelinck.

13. The art of engraving in mezzotinto is of much later date than the ordinary mode of engraving on copper. It was the invention of Prince Rupert about 1650. It is characterised by a softness equal to that of the pencil,

and a happy blending of light and shade, and is therefore peculiarly adapted to portrait, where those requisites are most essential.

14. The age of Leo X. was likewise an era of very high literary splendour; but of the distinguished writers of that period we shall afterwards treat, in a connected view of the progress of literature and the sciences during the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries.

XLIV.

OF THE OTTOMAN POWER IN THE SIXTEENTH CENTURY.

1. From the period of the taking of Constantinople, in the middle of the fifteenth century, the Turks were a great and conquering people. In the sixteenth century, Selim I., after subduing Syria and Mesopotamia, undertook the conquest of Egypt, then governed by the Mamalukes, a race

of Circassians, who had seized the country in 1250, and put an end to the government of the Arabian princes, the posterity of Saladin. The conquest of Egypt by Selim made little change in the form of its government. It professes to own the sovereignty of the Turks, but is in reality governed still by the Mamaluke Beys.

2. Solyman (the Magnificent), son of Selim, was, like his predecessors, a great conqueror. The island of Rhodes, possessed by the Knights of St. John, was a darling object of his ambition. These knights had expelled the Saracens from the island in 1310. Solyman attacked Rhodes with 140,000 men and 400 ships. The Rhodian knights, aided by the English, Italians, and Spaniards, made a noble defence; but, after a siege of many months, were forced to capitulate, and evacuate the island, 1522, which has been the property of the Turks ever since. The commercial laws of the ancient Rhodians were adopted by the Romans, and are at this day the foundation of the maritime jurisprudence of all the nations of Europe.

3. Solyman subdued the greatest part of Hungary, Moldavia, and Walachia, and took from the Persians Georgia and Bagdat. His son Selim II. took Cyprus from the Venetians in 1571. They applied to the Pope for aid, who, together with Philip II. of Spain, entered into a triple alliance against the Ottoman power. An armament of 250 ships of war, commanded by Philip's natural brother, Don John of Austria, was opposed to 250 Turkish gallies in the gulf of Lepanto, near Corinth; and the Turks were defeated, with the loss of 150 ships and 15,000 men, 1571. This great victory was soon after followed by the taking of Tunis by the same commander.

4. But these successes were of little consequence. The Ottoman power continued extremely formidable. Under Amurath II. the Turks made encroachments on Hungary, and subdued a part of Persia. Mahomet III. though a barbarian in his private character, supported the dignity of the empire, and extended its dominions. The Ottoman power declined from his time, and yielded to that of the Persians under Schah-Abbas the Great,

who wrested from the Turks a large part of their late-acquired dominions.

XLV.

STATE OF PERSIA AND THE OTHER ASIATIC KINGDOMS IN THE SIXTEENTH AND SEVENTEENTH CENTURIES.

1. THE great empire of Persia, in the end of the fifteenth century, underwent a revolution on account of religion. Haydar or Sophi, a religious enthusiast, established a new sect of Mahometans, which held Ali to be the successor of Mahomet instead of Omar, and abolished the pilgrimages to Mecca. The Persians eagerly embraced a doctrine which distinguished them from their enemies the Turks; and Ismael, the son of Sophi, following the example of Mahomet, enforced his opinions by the sword. He subdued all Persia and Armenia, and left this vast empire to his descendants.

2. Schah-Abbas, surnamed the Great, was

the great-grandson of Ismael Sophi. He ruled his empire with despotic sway, but with most able policy. He regained the provinces which had been taken by the Turks, and drove the Portuguese from their settlement of Ormuz. He rebuilt the fallen cities of Persia, and contributed greatly to the introduction of arts and civilisation. His son Schah-Sesi reigned weakly and unfortunately. In his time, Schah-Gean, the Great Mogul, deprived Persia of Candahar, and the Turks took Bagdat in 1638. From that period the Persian monarchy gradually declined. Its sovereigns became the most despicable slaves to their own ministers; and a revolution in the beginning of the eighteenth century put an end to the dynasty of the Sophis, and gave the throne to the Afghan princes, a race of Tartars.

3. The government of Persia is almost as despotic as that of Turkey. The Sovereign draws a small yearly tax from every subject, and receives likewise stated gifts on particular occasions. The crown is hereditary, with the exclusion of females; but the sons of a

daughter succeed in their room. There is no other rank in Persia than that annexed to office, which is held during the Monarch's pleasure. The national religion is the Mahometan, as reformed by Sophi. The sect of the Guebres preserve the religion of Zoroaster, as contained in the Zendavesta and Sadder, (See *supra*, Part I. Sect. XI.) and keep alive the sacred fire.

4. The poetry of the Persians displays great fancy and luxuriance of imagery. The epic poet Firdousi is said to rival the various merits of Homer and Ariosto; and the writings of Sadi and Hafez, both in prose and poetry, are admired by all who are conversant in Oriental literature.

5. *Tartary.*— From this vast tract of country sprang those conquerors who produced all the great revolutions in Asia. The Turks, a race of Tartars, overwhelmed the empire of the Caliphs. Mahmoud, a Tartar, conquered Persia and great part of India in the tenth century. The Tartar Gengiscan subdued India, China, Persia, and Asiatic Russia, in the beginning of the thirteenth century. Batou-

can, one of his sons, ravaged to the frontiers of Germany. Tamerlane, the scourge of the Turks, and conqueror of a great part of Asia, was of the race of Gengiscan. Babar, great-grandson of Tamerlane, subdued all between Samarcand and Agra in the empire of the Mogul. The descendants of those conquerors reign in India, Persia, and China; but Tartary itself is no more than a vast desert, inhabited by wandering tribes, who follow the life of the ancient Scythians.

6. *Thibet.* — This southern part of Tartary exhibits the phenomenon of a kingdom governed by a living god, the Dalai Lama, or Great Lama, whose divinity is acknowledged not only by his own subjects, but over China and a part of India. This god is a young man whom the priests educate and train to his function, and in whose name they in reality govern the kingdom.

XLVI.

HISTORY OF INDIA.

1. The earliest accounts of this great tract of civilised country are those of Herodotus, who lived about a century before Alexander the Great; and it is remarkable that the character given of the people by that early writer corresponds perfectly with that of the modern Hindoos. He had probably taken his accounts from Scylax of Cariandria, whom Darius Hystaspes had sent to explore the country. But it was not till the age of Alexander that the Greeks had any particular knowledge of that extraordinary people. Alexander penetrated into the Panjab, where his troops refusing to proceed, he embarked on the Hydaspes, which runs into the Indus, and thence pursued his course for above 1000 miles to the ocean. The narrative given by Arrian of this expedition was taken from the mouths of Alexander's officers;

and its particulars tally yet more remarkably than those of Herodotus with the modern manners of the Hindoos.

2. India was visited by Seleucus, to whose share it fell in the partition of Alexander's empire; and Antiochus the Great, 200 years afterwards, made a short expedition thither. It is probable too that some small intercourse subsisted between the Greek empire of Bactriana and India; but till the fifteenth century, no European power thought of forming any establishment in that country; though, from the age of Alexander down to the period of the Portuguese discoveries, there had constantly been some commercial intercourse between Europe and India, both by sea and across the desert.

3. The Mahometans, as early as A.D. 1000, had begun to establish an empire in India. Mahmoud, a Tartar, conquered a great part of the country, and established his capital at Ghazna, near the sources of the Indus, extirpating, wherever he came, the Hindoo religion, and establishing the Mahometan in its stead. Mohammed Gori, in 1194, penetrated to Benares, and one

of his successors fixed the seat of his empire at Delhy, which has continued to be the capital of the Mogul princes. The sovereignty founded by Mahmoud was overwhelmed in 1222 by Gengiscan, as was his empire in the following century by Tamerlane, whose posterity are at this day on the throne of the Mogul empire.

4. The Mogul empire was, even in the beginning of the 18th century, the most powerful and flourishing of all the Asiatic monarchies, under Aurengzebe; the son of Schah-Gean, who, though a monster of cruelty, and most despotic tyrant, enjoyed a life prolonged to an hundred years, crowned with uninterrupted prosperity and success. He extended his empire over the whole peninsula of India within the Ganges.

5. The dominion of the Mogul was not absolute over all the countries which composed his empire. Tamerlane allowed the petty princes, Rajahs or Nabobs, to retain their territories, of which their descendants are at this day in possession. They paid a tribute to the Great Mogul, as an acknowledgment of his sovereignty, and observed

the treaties agreed to by their ancestors; but they were in other respects independent princes.

6. Bengal became a part of the Mogul's empire by conquest in the end of the sixteenth century, and was commonly governed by a son of the Great Mogul, who had under him several inferior Nabobs, the former princes of the country. Such was its condition when the British East-India Company, between 1751 and 1760, conquered and obtained possession of that kingdom, together with Bahar and part of Orissa, a large, populous, and most flourishing country, containing above ten millions of inhabitants, and producing an immense revenue; and these territories have since that period received a considerable addition. The East-India Company thence has the benefit of the whole commerce of the Mogul Empire, with Arabia, Persia, and Thibet, as well as with the kingdoms of Azem, Aracan, Pegu, Siam, Malacca, China, and many of the oriental islands.

The fixed establishments of the British in the country of Indostan have afforded opportunity of obtaining much instructive know-

ledge relative to the ancient state of that country, of which we shall give a short sketch in the following section.

XLVII.

ANCIENT STATE OF INDIA; MANNERS, LAWS, ARTS AND SCIENCES, AND RELIGION OF THE HINDOOS.

1. THE remains of the ancient knowledge of the Hindoos have been preserved by a hereditary priesthood, in the Sanscreet language, long since extinct, and only known to a few of the Bramins. The zeal of some learned Europeans has lately opened that source of information, whence we learn the most interesting particulars of this extraordinary people, perhaps the most early cultivators of the sciences, and the instructors of all the nations of antiquity. We shall briefly notice their singular division into casts, their civil policy, their laws, their progress in the arts and sciences, and their religion.

2. The whole body of the people was divided into four orders or casts. The highest, that of the Bramins, was devoted to religion and the cultivation of the sciences: to the second belonged the preservation of the state; they were its sovereigns and its magistrates in peace, and its soldiers in war: the third were the husbandmen and merchants: and the fourth the artisans, labourers, and servants. These are inseparable distinctions, and descend from generation to generation. Moreover, the individuals of each class follow invariably the professions of their forefathers. Every man, from his birth, knows the function allotted to him, and fulfils with ease and satisfaction the duty which he cannot avoid. Hence arises that permanence of manners and institutions which so singularly characterises this ancient nation.

3. This classification is an artificial arrangement, which could have originated only from the mind of a legislator among a polished people, completely obedient to government. It is therefore a proof of the highly civilised

state of the Hindoo nation in the most remote periods of antiquity.

4. The civil policy of the Hindoos is another proof of the same fact. At the time of Alexander the Great, India was divided into large and powerful kingdoms, governed by Sovereigns whose dominion was not absolute, but controlled by the superior authority of the Bramins. A system of feudalism has ever prevailed in India; the rights to lands flow from the Sovereign, to whom a certain duty is payable by the class of the husbandmen, who transmit their possessions to their children under the same tenure. Strabo and Diodorus remarked among the Indians three classes of officers; one whose department was the regulation of agriculture, tanks, highways; another which superintended the police of the cities; a third which regulated the military department. The same policy prevails at this day under the Hindoo princes.

5. The jurisprudence of Hindostan is an additional proof of great antiquity and civilisation. The Ayen-Akbery, and still more the compilation of Hindoo laws from the ancient Sanscreet records, made by order of Mr.

Hastings, contain the jurisprudence of a refined and commercial people, among whom law itself had been a study and profession.

6. Many monuments exist in India of the advanced state of the useful and elegant arts in the remotest periods of antiquity. The ancient Pagodas, of vast extent and magnificence, whether cut in the solid rock, as in Elephanta and Salsette, or in the open air, as at Chillambrum and Seringham, the sumptuous residences of the Bramins; and the ancient hill fortresses, constructed with prodigious strength and solidity, evince a great advancement in the arts: as the resort of the most polished nations of antiquity to that country for cotton cloths, fine linen, and works in metal and in ivory, proves the superior state of those manufactures to all known at that time in Europe.

7. The late translations from the Sanscreet of several ingenious compositions of high antiquity, as the dramatic piece *Sacontala*, the *Hitòpadésa*, a series of moral apologues and fables, the *Mahabarat*, an epic poem, composed above 2000 years before the Christian aera, all concur in proof of a similar advance-

ment in literature; and we have reason to believe, from such works as are of a philosophical nature, that there is scarce a tenet of the Greek philosophy that has not been antecedently the subject of discussion among the Bramins of India.

8. The numeral cyphers, first introduced into Europe by the Arabians, were, as confessed by those authors themselves, borrowed from the Indians. It is above a century since the French philosophers evinced, by the evidence of a Siamese manuscript, containing tables for calculating the places of the heavenly bodies, the astonishing advancement made by this ancient people in the science of astronomy. A set of tables obtained lately from the Bramins by M. Gentil, goes back to an aera termed *Calyougham,* commencing 3102 years before the birth of Christ. These tables are used by the modern Bramins, who are quite ignorant of the principles on which they have been constructed, and which M. Bailly has shown to be the same employed by the moderns, but with which the Greeks and Chaldeans were utterly unacquainted.

9. Lastly, From the religious opinions and worship of the Hindoos we must draw the same conclusion as from all the preceding facts. One uniform system of superstition pervades every religion of India, which is supported by the most sagacious policy, and every thing that can excite the veneration of its votaries. The Bramins, elevated above every other class of men, and exclusively acquainted with the mysteries of that religion, which it is held impious for any other class to attempt to penetrate; the implicit reliance on the authority of these Bramins; the ceremonies of their worship, fitted to impress the imagination, and affect the passions; all concurred to fortify this potent superstition, and to give its priests a supreme ascendancy over the minds of the people. But those priests themselves, enlightened as they were, rejected that false theology. Their writings demonstrate that they entertained the most rational and elevated conceptions with regard to the Supreme Being, and the support of the universe.

10. On the whole, there is a high probability that India was the great school from which

the most early polished nations of Europe derived their knowledge of the arts, of sciences, and of literature.

XLVIII.

OF CHINA AND JAPAN.

1. PROCEEDING eastward in the survey of the Asiatic continent, the great empire of China next solicits our attention. In the end of the tenth century, China, Persia, and the greatest part of India, were ruled by the Tartar descendants of Gengiskan. The Tartar family of Yven, who conquered China, made no change in its laws and system of government, which had been permanent from time immemorial. Of this family there reigned nine successive monarchs, without any attempt by the Chinese to throw off the Tartar yoke. The odious and contemptible character of the last of these Sovereigns at length excited a rebellion, which, in 1357, drove the Tartars from the throne; and the Chinese, for 276

years, obeyed their native princes. At that period a second revolution gave the throne once more to the Tartars. Taking advantage of an insurrection in one of the provinces, they invaded China in 1641, and made an easy conquest. The Emperor shut himself up in his palace, and, after putting to death all his family, finished the scene by hanging himself. The same Tartars occupy the throne of China at this day, and observe the same wise policy of maintaining inviolate the Chinese laws, policy, and manners. Of these we shall give a brief account in the subsequent section.

2. The empire of Japan was discovered by the Portuguese about the middle of the sixteenth century. The open and unsuspicious character of this industrious and polished people led them to encourage the resort of foreigners to their ports; and the Spaniards, after they had obtained the sovereignty of Portugal, carried on a most beneficial trade to the coasts of Japan. The Emperor zealously promoted this intercourse, till the insatiable ambition of the Spaniards gave him alarming conviction of its danger. Under the

pretence of converting the Japanese from idolatry, a vast number of priests were sent into the country, and one half of the people were speedily set at mortal variance with the other. It now became necessary to prohibit this work of conversion by an imperial edict. Still, however, a free trade was allowed, till 1637, when a conspiracy of the Spaniards was discovered for dethroning the Emperor and seizing the government. An edict was issued for the expulsion of all the Spaniards and Portuguese, who were mad enough to resist, till overpowered by force of arms. Since that period all the European nations have been excluded from the ports of Japan. The Dutch only, who had been the discoverers of the conspiracy of the Spaniards, are allowed the privilege of landing on one of the small islands, for the purposes of trade, after making oath that they are not of the Portuguese religion.

XLIX.

OF THE ANTIQUITY OF THE EMPIRE OF CHINA. STATE OF THE ARTS AND SCIENCES, MANNERS, GOVERNMENT, LAWS.

1. The antiquity of this vast empire, and the state of its government, laws, manners, and attainments in the arts and sciences, have furnished a most ample field of controversy. Voltaire, Raynal, and other writers of similar principles, have, for the purpose of discrediting the scriptural account of the origin of mankind, and the received notions of the age of the universe, given to the Chinese empire an immense antiquity, and a character of such high civilisation and knowledge of the sciences and arts at that remote period, as to be utterly irreconcileable with the state and progress of man as described in the books of Moses. On the other hand, it is probable that the desire of invalidating those opinions has induced other writers of ability to go to

an opposite extreme; to undervalue this singular people, and to give too little weight to any accounts which we have, either of the duration of their empire, the economy of their government and police, or of their attainments in the arts and sciences. Amidst this contrariety of sentiments, we shall endeavour to form such opinion as appears most consonant to the truth.

2. The panegyrists of the Chinese assert that their empire has subsisted above 4000 years, without any material alteration in its laws, manners, language, or even fashion of dress; in evidence of which they appeal to a series of eclipses, marking contemporary events, all accurately calculated, for 2155 years before the birth of Christ. As it is easy to calculate eclipses backwards from the present day to any given period of time, it is thus possible to give to a history, fictitious from beginning to end, its chronology of real eclipses. This proof, therefore, amounts to nothing, unless it were likewise proved that all those eclipses were actually recorded at the time when they happened; but this neither has been nor can be done; for it is an allowed fact that there

are no regular historical records beyond the third century before the Christian aera. The present Chinese are utterly ignorant of the motions of the celestial bodies, and cannot calculate eclipses. The series mentioned has therefore in all probability been calculated by some of the Jesuits, to ingratiate themselves with the Emperors, and flatter the national vanity. The Jesuits have presided in the tribunal of mathematics for above 200 years.

3. But if the authentic annals of this empire go back even to the third century before Christ, and record at that time a high state of civilisation, we must allow that the Chinese are an ancient and early polished people, and that they have possessed a singular constancy in their government, laws, and manners. Sir William Jones, no bigotted encomiast of this people, allows their great antiquity and early civilisation, and, with much apparent probability, traces their origin from the Hindoos. He appeals to the ancient Sanscreet records, which mention a migration from India of certain of the military class termed *Chinas* to the countries east from Bengal. Tne stationary condition of the

arts and sciences in China proves that these have not originated with that people; and many peculiarities of the manners, institutions, and popular religion of the Chinese, have a near affinity with those of the Hindoos.

4. The government of China is that of an absolute monarchy. The patriarchal system pervades the whole, and binds all the members of this vast empire in the strictest subordination. Every father is absolute in his family, and may inflict any punishment short of death upon his children. The mandarin of the district is absolute, with the power of life and death over all its members; but a capital sentence cannot be inflicted without the Emperor's approbation. The Emperor's power is absolute over all the mandarins, and every subject of the empire. To reconcile the people to this despotic authority, the Sovereign alone is entitled to relieve the wants of the poor, and to compensate public calamities, as well as the misfortunes of individuals. He is therefore regarded as the father of his people, and even adored as a benevolent divinity.

5. Another circumstance which conciliates the people to their government is, that all honours in China are conferred according to merit, and that chiefly literary. The civil mandarins, who are the magistrates and judges, are appointed to office according to their measure of knowledge and mental endowments. No office or rank is hereditary, but may be aspired to by the meanest of the people. The penal laws of China are remarkably severe, but their execution may be remitted by the Emperor. The judicial tribunals are regulated by a body of written laws of great antiquity, and founded on the basis of universal justice and equity. The Emperor's opinion rarely differs from the sentences of those courts. One tribunal judges of the qualifications of the mandarins; another regulates the morals of the people, and the national manners; a third is the tribunal of censors, which reviews the laws, the conduct of the magistrates and judges, and even that of the Emperor himself. These tribunals are filled by an equal number of Chinese and Tartars.

6. It has been observed, that the sciences have been stationary in this empire for many ages; and they are at this day extremely low, though far beyond the attainments of a barbarous people. The language of China seems to oppose the prosecution of speculative researches. It has no regular inflections, and can with difficulty express abstract ideas. We have remarked the ignorance of the Chinese in mathematics and astronomy. Of physics they have no acquaintance beyond the knowledge of apparent facts. They never ascend to principles or form theories. Their knowledge of medicine is extremely limited, and is blended with the most contemptible superstition. Of anatomy, they know next to nothing; and in surgery they have never ventured to amputate a limb, or to reduce a fracture.

7. The state of the useful and elegant arts has been equally stationary as that of the sciences. They have attained many ages ago to a certain point of advancement, which they have never gone beyond. The Chinese are said to have manufactured glass for 2000

years, yet at this day it is inferior in transparency to the European, and is not used in their windows. Gunpowder they are reported to have known from time immemorial, but they never employed it in artillery or fire-arms till taught by the Europeans. Printing they are said to have invented in the age of Julius Caesar; yet they know not the use of moveable types, but print from blocks of wood. When first shewn the use of the compass in sailing, they affirmed that they were well acquainted with it, but found no occasion to employ it. The art of painting in China is mere mechanical imitation, without grace, expression, or even accuracy of proportions. Of the rules of perspective they have not the smallest idea. In sculpture, as in the figures of their idols, the Chinese artists seem to delight in distortion and deformity. Their music is not regulated by any principles of science: they have no semi-tones; and their instruments are imperfect and untunable. The Chinese architecture has variety, lightness, and sometimes elegance, but has no grandeur or symmetrical beauty.

8. Yet, in some of the arts, the Chinese have attained to great perfection. Agriculture is carried in China to the highest pitch of improvement. There is not a spot of waste land in the whole empire, nor any which is not highly cultivated. The Emperor himself is the chief of the husbandmen, and annually holds the plough with his own hands. Hence, and from the modes of economising food, is supported the astonishing population of 333 millions, or 260 inhabitants to every square mile of the empire. The gardening of the Chinese, and their admirable embellishment of rural nature, have of late been the object of imitation in Europe, but with far inferior success. The manufacture of porcelain is an original invention of this people ; and the Europeans, though excelling them in the form and ornament of the utensils, have never been able to attain to the excellence of the material.

9. The morals of the Chinese have furnished much subject both of encomium and censure. The books of Confucius are said to contain a most admirable system of morality ; but the principles of morals have their foundation in

human nature, and must, in theory, be every where the same. The moral virtues of a people are not to be estimated from the books of their philosophers. It is probable that the manners of the superior classes are in China, as elsewhere, much influenced by education and example. The morals of the lower classes are said to be beyond measure loose, and their practices most dishonest; nor are they regulated by any principle but selfish interest, or restrained but by the fear of punishment.

10. The religion of the Chinese is different in the different ranks of society. There is no religion of the state. The Emperor and the higher mandarins profess the belief of one Supreme Being, *Changti*, whom they worship by prayer and thanksgiving, without any mixture of idolatrous practices. They respect the Lama of Thibet as the high-priest or prophet of this religion. A prevalent sect is that of *Tao-sse*, who believe in the power of magic, the agency of spirits, and the divining of future events. A third is the sect of *Fo*, derived from India, whose priests are the Bonzes, and whose fundamental doctrine is, that all

things rose out of nothing, and finally must return to it; that all animals are first to undergo a series of transmigrations; and that as man's chief happiness is to approach as near as possible to a state of annihilation in this life, absolute idleness is more laudable than occupation of any kind. A variety of hideous idols are worshipped by this sect.

11. The Chinese have their sacred books, termed *Kings*; as the *Yking*, *Chouking*, &c.; which, amidst some good moral precepts, contain much mystery, childish superstition, and absurdity. These are chiefly resorted to for the divining of future events, which seems the *ultimatum* of research among the Chinese philosophers. The observation of the heavenly bodies is made for that purpose alone: the changes of weather, the performance or omission of certain ceremonies, the occurrence of certain events in particular times and places, are all believed to have their influence on futurity, and are therefore carefully observed and recorded; and the rules by which those omens are interpreted are said to have been prescribed by the great

Confucius, the father of the Chinese philosophy, 500 years before the Christian aera.

12. We conclude, on the whole, that the Chinese are a very remarkable people; that their government, laws, policy, and knowledge of the arts and sciences, exhibit unquestionable proofs of great antiquity and early civilisation; but that the extraordinary measure of duration assigned to their empire by some modern writers rests on no solid proofs; nor are their government, laws, manners, arts, or scientific attainments, at all deserving of that superlative and most exaggerated encomium which has been bestowed on them.

L.

M. BAILLY'S THEORY OF THE ORIGIN OF THE SCIENCES AMONG THE NATIONS OF ASIA.

1. The striking resemblance in many points of character between the Chinese and ancient Egyptians has led to the conjecture, either that they were originally the same people, the one being a colony of the other, or that the two nations have had at some remote period such intercourse, either by conquest or in the way of commerce, as to occasion a reciprocal communication of manners, arts, and knowledge of the sciences. M. de Mairan has remarked the following points of similarity. The Egyptians and Chinese had the same permanence of manners, and abhorrence of innovations; they were alike remarkable for the respect entertained by children to their parents; they were equally averse to war; they had the same general but superficial knowledge in the arts and

sciences, without the ability to make great attainments; they both, in the most ancient times, used hieroglyphics; the Egyptians had a solemn festival, called the *Feast of the Lights;* the Chinese have the *Feast of the Lanterns;* the features of the Chinese are said to resemble the ancient Egyptian statues; certain characters engraven on an Egyptian bust of Isis were found to belong to the Chinese language.

2. M. Bailly has taken a wider range of observations, and has, from a review of the manners, customs, opinions, and attainments of the Indians, Persians, Chinese, Chaldaeans, and Egyptians, discovered many circumstances of similarity between all those nations equally remarkable as the foregoing. He has thence formed the singular hypothesis, that the knowledge common to the whole of those nations has been derived from the same original source, namely, a most ancient and highly cultivated people of Asia, of whose memory every trace is now extinct, but who have been the parent instructors of all around them. If we find, says he, in the scattered

huts of peasants, fragments interspersed of sculptured columns, we conclude for certain that these are not the work of the rude peasants who reared those huts, but that they are the remains of a magnificent building, the work of able architects, though we discover no other traces of the existence of that building, and cannot ascertain its precise situation.

3. The sciences and arts of the Chinese have been stationary for 2000 years. The people seem never to have availed themselves of the lights of their ancestors. They are like the inhabitants of a country recently discovered by a polished people, who have taught them some of their arts, and left their instruments among them. The knowledge they possess seems to have been imported, and not of original growth, for it has never been progressive.

4. The Chaldaeans were an enlightened people at the commencement of the Babylonish empire, 2000 years before the Christian aera.—They were great astronomers, and understood the revolutions of comets, which became known to the moderns only in the

sixteenth century. The Chaldaeans were probably the remains of this ancient people. The Bramins of India believe in the unity of God and the immortality of the soul, but with these sublime tenets they intermix the most childish absurdities. They derived the former from wise instructors, the latter were the fruit of their own ignorance. The Sanscreet, a most copious and elegant language, and the vehicle of all the Indian knowledge and philosophy, has been a dead tongue for thousands of years, and is intelligible only to a few of those Bramins. It was probably the language of that great ancient people.

5. The coincidence or similarity of customs concurs to establish the same idea. The custom of libation was common to the Tartars and Chinese, as well as to the Greeks and Romans. All the Asiatic nations had festivals of the nature of the Roman *Saturnalia.* The tradition of the deluge is diffused among all those nations: the tradition of the giants attacking heaven is equally general. The doctrine of the metempsychosis was common to the Egyptians, Greeks, Indians, Persians, Tartarians, and Chinese. The religion of all

these nations is founded on the profound, though erroneous, doctrine of the two principles, an universal soul pervading all nature, and inert matter on which it acts. A conformity in a true doctrine is no proof of mutual communication or concert; but it is ingeniously remarked, that a conformity in a false doctrine comes very near to such a proof.

6. The Egyptians, Chaldaeans, Indians, Persians, and Chinese, all placed their temples fronting the East, to receive the first rays of the sun. The worship of the sun has been the religion of that ancient people. All the above-mentioned nations had a cycle, or period of sixty years, for regulating their chronology; they all divided the circle into 360 degrees, the zodiac into twelve signs, and the week into seven days; and the Chinese, Indians, and Egyptians designed those days by the names of the planets ranged in the same order. The long measures of the ancient nations had all one common origin.

7. These singular coincidences, argues M. Bailly, can be accounted for only by three suppositions: 1. That there was a free com

munication between all those ancient nations: 2. That those circumstances of coincidence are so founded in human nature, that the most unconnected nations could not fail to hit upon them: or, 3. That they have been all derived from a common source. He rejects the two former suppositions, as contrary in his opinion to fact, and rests of course upon the last.

8. The precise situation of this great ancient people M. Bailly does not pretend to fix with certainty; but he offers probable reasons for conjecturing that it was about the 49th or 50th degree of north latitude, in the southern regions of Siberia. Many of the European and Asiatic nations attribute their origin to that quarter, which thence appears to have been extremely populous. Nitre, a production from animal substances, is more abundant there than in any other region. The observations of the rising of the stars, collected by Ptolemy, must have been made in a climate where the longest day was sixteen hours, which corresponds to the latitude mentioned. No European nation in that latitude understood astronomy in those

early periods. The veneration of the Indians and Chinese for the Lama of Thibet is a proof that the religion of those nations originated in that quarter.

9. But does that region exhibit any traces of having been ever inhabited by a polished people? It is here that the theory of M. Bailly seems to be least supported by proof. He observes, that ancient mines have been discovered in those parts of Siberia, which have been wrought to great extent in a period beyond all record or tradition; that ancient sepulchres have been found, in which there were ornaments of gold of skilful workmanship; but the facts specified are so few as to warrant no positive inference.

10. This theory is an amusing specimen of the author's ingenuity; but it has not the force to draw our assent to his conclusions. We have noticed it, as specifying many curious facts relative to the manners and attainments of the ancient nations, and as furnishing strong evidence of the common origin of mankind. The nations above mentioned, though many of them remote from

each other, were all connected as links of a chain, by proximity; whence it is easy to conceive that knowledge should diverge from a centre to a very distant circumference. M. Bailly has given no reasonable grounds for fixing that centre in the position he has assigned it.

LI.

REIGN OF PHILIP II. OF SPAIN.—REVOLUTION OF THE NETHERLANDS, AND ESTABLISHMENT OF THE REPUBLIC OF HOLLAND.

1. After a short survey of the Asiatic kingdoms, we return to the history of Europe in the sixteenth century.

In the time of Philip II., the successor of Charles V., the balance of power in Europe was sustained by Spain, France, England, and Germany, all at this time highly flourishing and respectable, either from the talents of their Sovereigns, or their internal strength.

Elisabeth, Henry IV., and Philip II., were all acute and able politicians, though the policy of the last partook more of selfish craft, and had less of the manly and heroic, than that of either of his rival monarchs. Philip was at this time Sovereign of Spain, the Two Sicilies, Milan, and the Netherlands. He had likewise, for a few years, the power of England at his command, by his marriage with Mary, the elder sister and predecessor of Elisabeth.

2. Pope Paul IV., jealous of the power of Philip, formed an alliance with Henry II. of France to deprive the Spaniards of Milan and the Sicilies. Philip, with the aid of the English, defeated the French at St. Quintin in Picardy, and hoped, from this signal victory, to force the allies into a peace; but the Duke of Guise recovered the spirits of the French by the taking of Calais from the English, which they had now possessed for 200 years. Another great victory, however, obtained by Philip near Gravelines, brought on the treaty of Catteau-Cambresis, in 1559, by which the French surrendered to Spain

no less than eighty-nine fortified towns in the Low Countries and in Italy.

3. Philip, now at ease from foreign disturbances, began to be disquieted on the score of religion. An intolerant bigot by nature, he resolved to extirpate every species of heresy from his dominions. The Netherlands, an assemblage af separate states, were all subject to Philip, under various titles; and he had conferred the government of Holland, Zealand, Friesland, and Utrecht, on William Prince of Orange, a Count of the German empire. The Lutheran and Calvinistic opinions had made great progress in those quarters; and Philip, determining to repress them, established the Inquisition with plenary powers, created new bishops, and prepared to abrogate the ancient laws, and give the provinces a new political institution. These innovations creating alarm and tumult, the Duke of Alva was sent into Flanders to enforce implicit submission.

4. The Inquisition began its bloody work, and many of the principal nobility of the provinces were its victims. The minds of the

people were completely alienated, and a chief was only wanting to give union to their measures. The Prince of Orange, who was himself under sentence of the Inquisition, found no difficulty to raise an army, and having easily reduced some of the most important garrisons, he was proclaimed Stadtholder of Holland and Zealand in 1570. Eighteen thousand persons perished by the hands of the executioner in the course of the Duke of Alva's government, which was of five years' duration. His place was supplied by Requesens, a man of humanity, but bound to obey his inhuman master, who, on the death of Requesens, sent his brother Don John of Austria to endeavour to regain the revolted states: but the attempt was fruitless. The whole seventeen provinces had suffered alike from the tyranny of their Sovereign, but particular jealousies prevented a general union, and only seven of these asserted their independence by a solemn treaty formed at Utrecht, 23d January, 1579; by which it was agreed that they should defend their liberties as one united republic; that they should

jointly determine in matters of peace and war, establish a general legislative authority, and maintain a liberty of conscience in matters of religion. These seven United Provinces are, Guelderland, Holland, Zealand, Friesland, Utrecht, Overyssel, and Groningen. William Prince of Orange was declared their chief magistrate, general, and admiral, by the title of *Stadtholder*.

5. Philip vented his indignation by a proscription of the Prince of Orange, offering 25,000 crowns for his head, and he compassed his revenge, for this illustrious man was cut off by an assassin, 1584. His son Maurice was elected Stadtholder in his room, and sustained his important part with great courage and ability. With a slender aid from Elisabeth of England, who delighted to traverse the plans of Philip, this infant commonwealth accomplished and secured its independence, which it has maintained, till its disgraceful subjugation in the present times, the miserable fruit of faction and political disunion.

6. The other ten provinces, whose discontents were expressed only by murmur and

complaint, were soothed by a new charter from Philip, confirming their privileges; while at the same time he took every possible measure to prevent any attempt on their part to throw off the yoke.

LII.

OF THE CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT OF THE UNITED PROVINCES.

1. THE treaty of confederation of the Seven United Provinces, framed in 1579, and solemnly renewed in 1583, is declared to be, by its nature, indissoluble. Each province thereby preserved its own laws, its magistrates, its sovereignty, and its independence. They form, however, one body politic, having renounced the right of making separate alliances and treaties, and established a general council, with power of assembling the states and regulating the common affairs of the republic. The assembly of the States-General was ori-

ginally held only twice a year, but became afterwards a perpetual council.

2. In all matters which regard not the general interest of the nation, each of the states or provinces is in itself a republic, governed by its own laws and magistrates, and possessing a supreme legislative authority. The deputies from each of the towns form the council of the province, in which is vested its separate government; and these deputies are regulated by the instructions of their constituents. The votes of the majority of deputies decide in the provincial council in all matters which regard not the general interest of the nation.

3. The great council of the States-General, always met in assembly at the Hague, is composed of the deputies from the Seven Provinces, of which Holland sends three, Zealand and Utrecht two, and the others one; each deputy being regulated by the council of his province. A majority of voices is here decisive, unless in the great questions of peace, war, and alliance, in which unanimity is requisite. The disadvantage of this constitution is the delay and difficulty in the

execution of public measures. All the towns and all the nobles of a province must deliberate, and instruct their deputy, before the States-General can take the matter under consideration. This great defect is in some measure corrected by the power and influence of the Stadtholder.

4. The Stadtholder is commander in chief of the sea and land forces, and disposes of all the military employments. He presides over all the courts of justice, and has the power of pardoning crimes. He appoints the magistrates of the towns from a list made by themselves; receives and names ambassadors, and is charged with the execution of the laws. He is supreme arbiter in all differences between the provinces, cities, or other members of the state.

5. William, the first Stadtholder, did not abuse these high powers; nor did his successors, Maurice and Henry Frederick. But under William II. the states became jealous of an exorbitant authority in their chief magistrate, and on his death the office was for some time abolished. In that interval the republic was almost annihilated by the arms

of Louis XIV. ; and, sensible of their error, they restored the office of Stadtholder in the person of William III. who retrieved the fortunes and honour of his country. In gratitude for his services, the dignity was made hereditary in his family, a solecism in the government of a republic. On the death of William without issue, the office was once more abolished for twenty years, when it was again restored, declared hereditary in the family of Orange, and descendible even to the issue of a daughter. The only restrictions are, that the succeeding Prince shall be of the Protestant religion, and neither King nor Elector of the German empire.

LIII.

REIGN OF PHILIP II. CONTINUED.

1. The loss of the Netherlands was in some degree compensated to Philip II. by the acquisition of the kingdom of Portugal. Muley Mahomet, King of Fez and Morocco, dethroned by his uncle Muley Moluc, solicited the aid of Don Sebastian King of Portugal to regain his throne. Sebastian landed with an army in Africa, but was defeated by the Moors, and slain; and the contending Moorish princes perished in the same engagement. Sebastian was succeeded by his grand-uncle Don Henry, who died after a reign of two years. The competitors for the crown were Don Antonio Prior of Crato, and Philip II., paternal and maternal uncles of the last sovereign. Philip defeated his rival in a decisive engagement at sea, and, without further

opposition, took possession of the throne of Portugal, 1580.

2. Elisabeth of England had warmly espoused the cause of the revolted Netherlands, and her Admiral Sir Francis Drake had taken some of the Spanish settlements in America. To avenge these injuries, the Invincible Armada of 150 ships of war, 27,000 men, and 3000 pieces of cannon, was equipped by Philip for the invasion of England. The English fleet of 108 ships, attacked them in the night, and burnt and destroyed a great part of the squadron: a storm, which drove them on the rocks and sands of Zealand, completed their discomfiture, and only fifty shattered vessels, with 6000 men, returned to Spain, 1588.

3. The restless spirit of Philip II. was engaged at the same time in the reduction of the Netherlands, the project for the invasion of England, and the dismembering the kingdom of France. The last scheme was as ineffectual as we have seen the two former. It was defeated at once by the conversion of Henry IV. to the Catholic religion. The po-

licy of Philip had nothing in it great or generous. His restless ambition was fitted to embroil Europe, but he had not the judgment to turn the distresses he occasioned to his own advantage. In his own kingdoms, as in his domestic life, he was a gloomy and inhuman tyrant. Yet from the variety and magnitude of his designs, the power by which they were supported, and the splendour of his dominion, the character of Spain was high and respectable in the scale of the nations of Europe.

LIV.

STATE OF FRANCE IN THE END OF THE SIXTEENTH CENTURY.

UNDER HENRY II., FRANCIS II., CHARLES IX., HENRY III., AND HENRY IV.

1. THE reformed religion had made the greater progress in France from the impolitic persecution it sustained from Henry II. the

son and successor of Francis I., who, though he aided the Protestants of Germany in resisting the despotism of Charles V., showed no mercy to their brethren in his own kingdom.

2. On the death of Henry II. the conspiracy of Amboise was planned by the Prince of Condé, for the destruction of the Duke of Guise, who ruled the kingdom under Francis II., and to whose intolerance and cruelty the Protestants attributed all their calamites. Guise owed his ascendancy chiefly to the marriage of his niece, Mary Queen of Scots, with the young monarch; and the detection of this conspiracy, the massacre of its principal leaders, and the barbarous punishment of all who partook in it, while they confirmed his power, served only to increase the rancour of the contending parties.

3. Francis II. died after a reign of a year, 1560, and was succeeded by his brother Charles IX., a boy of ten years of age. The Queen-Mother Catharine de Medicis, who had no other principle but the love of power, was equally jealous of the influence of the Condés and the Guises. An ecclesiastical

assembly, held by her desire at Poissy, gave toleration to the Protestants to exercise their worship through all France, without the walls of the towns. The zeal or the imprudence of the Duke of Guise infringed this ordinance, and both parties flew to arms. The Admiral Coligni headed the troops of the Protestants, who were aided by 10,000 Germans from the Palatinate; and Philip of Spain, to increase the disorders, sent an army to the aid of the Catholics.

4. The horrors of civil war were aggravated by murders and assassinations. The Duke of Guise was the victim of the frantic zeal of an enthusiast. After many desperate engagements with various success, a treacherous peace was agreed to by the Catholics; and Coligni, with the chiefs of the Protestant party, were invited to court, and received by the Queen-Mother and her son with the most extraordinary marks of favour: among the rest Henry of Navarre, to whom the young monarch had given his sister in marriage. Such were the preparatives to the infernal massacre of St. Bartholomew. On the night of the 23d of August, 1572, at the ringing

of the matin-bell, a general massacre was made by the Catholics of all the Protestants throughout the kingdom of France. Charles IX., a monster of cruelty, assisted himself in the murder of his own subjects.

5. Amidst these horrors, Henry Duke of Anjou, brother of Charles IX., was elected King of Poland, but had scarcely taken possession of his throne, when he was called to that of France by the death of its execrable Sovereign, 1574. The weakness of the new monarch Henry III. was ill fitted to compose the disorders of the kingdom. Equally bigotted and profligate, he became the scorn of his subjects, and the dupe of the contending factions.

6. The Protestant party was now supported by the Prince of Condé and young Henry of Navarre, descended from Robert of Bourbon, a younger son of Lewis IX. The Duke of Alençon, the King's brother, had likewise joined their party. The Catholics, to accumulate their strength, formed a bond of union, termed the *League*, nominally for defence of the state and its religion, but in reality for usurping all the powers of govern-

ment and suppressing the Protestant faith. Of this dangerous association Henry III., with the weakest policy, declared himself the head, and thus the avowed enemy of one half of his subjects. He saw his error when too late; and dreading the designs of the Duke of Guise, and his brother the Cardinal of Lorraine, whose authority had superseded his own, he basely rid himself of his fears by procuring their assassination. This vicious and contemptible tyrant, after a reign of fifteen years, was himself assassinated by Jacques Clement, a Jacobin monk, from the phrenzy of fanaticism, 1589.

7. The next heir of the crown was Henry of Navarre, who had been educated a Protestant by his mother, the daughter of Henry D'Albret King of Navarre. At the age of sixteen he had been declared head of the party of the Huguenots; his uncle the Prince of Condé and the Admiral Coligni acting as his lieutenants. His first military enterprises were unsuccessful. Invited to Paris, at the peace of 1572, to marry the sister of Charles IX., he narrowly escaped

from the massacre of St. Bartholomew, but remained three years a prisoner. On the death of Charles, he again took the field against the army of the League, which he defeated in the battle of Coutras, 1587, and still more signally in that of Arques, 1589. After the death of Henry III., he won the celebrated battle of Ivry; and being acknowledged Sovereign of France by all but the party of the League, then in possession of Paris, he laid siege to the city, which must have capitulated, but for the succours of Philip II. Religion was the sole cause of the disunion of France, and the only obstacle to the acknowledgment of Henry's title by the greatest part of his subjects. At the earnest persuasion of Rosni (Duke of Sully), himself a Protestant, Henry was prevailed on to declare himself a Catholic. He abjured at St. Denis, and was crowned King at Chartres, 1594. He soon after took possession of Paris; but it cost him several years, both of war and negociation, before he gained the whole of his kingdom, exhausted as it was and ruined by civil discord.

8. The subsequent life of this excellent prince was devoted to the reparation of these misfortunes. After forcing Philip II. to conclude the advantageous peace of Vervins, 1598, his whole attention was bestowed on the improvement of his kingdom, by reforming its laws, regulating its finances, encouraging agriculture and manufactures, enlarging and embellishing the cities, and finally by successfully reconciling the partisans of the contending religions. In all his beneficial schemes, he found an able assistant in his minister the Duke of Sully, who has beautifully depicted the life and character of his master. It is in his memoirs that we see not only the great designs, but the private virtues, the engaging and amiable manners of this illustrious man, who, while he was the arbiter of the contending powers of Europe, was the indulgent father of a happy people.

9. The period of the splendour and happiness of France was of short duration. Henry IV., worthy to be immortal, was assassinated at the age of fifty-seven, 4th May, 1610, by Ravaillac, an insane fanatic. He

meditated, at the time of his death, the great project of a perpetual peace between the states of Europe; a design highly characteristic of the benevolent mind of its author, but which the weakness of mankind, and the impossibility of reasoning with nations as with wise individuals, must for certain have rendered abortive.

LV.

HISTORY OF ENGLAND AND OF SCOTLAND IN THE REIGNS OF ELISABETH AND MARY QUEEN OF SCOTS.

1. ELISABETH, daughter of Henry VIII. by Anna Bullen, succeeded to the throne on the death of her sister Mary, 1558; and England attained to a high degree of splendour under the rule of this great and politic Princess, whose talents enabled her to pursue the true interests of her people, while her vigorous and intrepid mind led her to take an important part in maintaining the balance of

power in Europe. While she encouraged at home every useful art and manufacture, she colonised a great part of North America, supported the infant republic of Holland against its tyrannical enemy, humbled the pride of Spain in the defeat of its Invincible Armada, and assisted Henry IV. in the recovery of his kingdom. It was her fortune to have the aid of most able ministers, and her merit to place her confidence in their counsels.

2. Had Elisabeth been equally endowed with the virtues of the heart as with the powers of the mind, she would have shone the most illustrious character in the annals of modern Europe. Her conduct to her cousin Mary Queen of Scots has fixed an indelible stain on her character. Mary, the daughter of James V., and great-grand-daughter of Henry VII., educated in France, and married, when very young, to the Dauphin, afterwards Francis II., had imprudently assumed the arms and title of Queen of England, by the persuasion of her maternal uncles the Guises. The pretence was the illegitimacy of Elisabeth, declared by Henry VIII. on his

divorce from Anna Bullen. This false step laid the foundation of all the miseries of the Queen of Scots.

3. The Reformation was at this time going forward in Scotland with the most ardent zeal. The Earls of Argyle, Morton, Glencairn, and others, its chief promoters, had, by their own authority, suppressed the worship of the mass over a great part of the kingdom. The Catholic bishops, by an ill-judged persecution of the Reformers, greatly increased the number of their proselytes. They began to muster their strength; and headed by John Knox, a disciple of Calvin, a virtuous man, but of the most furious and intemperate zeal, threw down the altars and images, expelled the priests, and demolished the churches and monasteries. Acting now in arms, and in open defiance of government, the Queen-Mother, Mary of Guise, attempted, by the aid of French troops, to reduce her Protestant subjects to submission; and these applied for aid to the Protestant Queen of England. Elisabeth sent an army and a fleet to their assistance. The death of the Queen-Mother was followed by a capitulation, by

which it was agreed that the French should evacuate Scotland, and that Mary should renounce all pretension to the crown of England. The Protestant religion, under Presbyterian forms, was now established in the room of the Catholic.

4. In this situation of Scotland, Mary, at the age of eighteen, on the death of her mother, and of her husband Francis II., returned to her hereditary kingdom; having fortunately escaped an English fleet which Elisabeth had dispatched to take her prisoner on her passage. Her misfortunes began from that hour. Her Protestant subjects regarded their Catholic Queen with abhorrence, and looked up to her enemy Elisabeth as their support and defender. That artful Princess had secured to her interest the very men on whom the unsuspecting Mary placed her utmost confidence, her bastard brother the Earl of Murray, the Earl of Morton, and Secretary Lethington. The views of Murray aimed at nothing less than his sister's crown, and the obstacles which opposed his criminal ambition served only to render his attempts more daring and more flagitious.

5. The marriage of Mary with her cousin Lord Darnley, son of the Earl of Lennox, who stood in the same relation to Elisabeth, was not relished by that Princess. Encouraged by her ministers, Randolph and Cecil, Murray formed a conspiracy to seize and imprison the Queen, and put to death her husband, and usurp the government; and on the detection of his designs, attempted to support them by open rebellion. Defeated, exiled, pardoned, and loaded with benefits by his injured Sovereign, he persevered in the same atrocious purposes, till he at length accomplished them.

6. The spouse of Mary had incurred her resentment by his vices and his follies. Taking advantage of the weakness of his mind, Murray, Morton, and Lethington, had rendered him jealous of the partiality of Mary for her foreign secretary, the aged Rizzio, and engaged him in the barbarous act of murdering this ill-fated wretch at the feet of the Queen, to whose garments he clung for protection. The purpose of this shocking outrage was to procure the abortion of Mary, then big with child, and possibly her

death; or should she survive, to alienate completely her affections from her husband, and thus to render her suspected of the design they had projected of cutting him off by assassination. In the latter purpose they succeeded. The house which Darnley inhabited was blown up by gunpowder; his body was found strangled near the place, and the report immediately prevailed that Mary had been accessary to his murder.

7. A most imprudent step, to which she was conducted by the same band of traitors, gave countenance to this suspicion. At the earnest recommendation of Morton and some of her chief nobility, she married the Earl of Bothwell, a man openly stigmatised as one of the murderers of her husband. He had, it is true, been absolved on trial for that crime, and had by force made himself master of her person. The plans of Murray and his associates, successful to the utmost of their wishes, were now ripe for consummation. On the pretext of the Queen's guilt of murder and adultery, she was confined by Murray in the castle of Lochleven, and there compelled to resign

her crown into the hands of her unnatural brother, who was to govern the kingdom as Regent during the minority of her infant son, now proclaimed king by the title of James VI., 1567. Bothwell escaped beyond seas, and died in Denmark.

8. A great part of the nation reprobated these infamous proceedings. Mary escaped from her confinement; and at the head of an army gave battle to the rebels at Langside; but, being defeated, she fled for shelter to the north of England. Elisabeth, who had secretly taken part in all the machinations of her enemies, had now gained a great object of her ambition: she had in her hands a hated rival, and by her support of Murray and his party, the absolute command of the kingdom of Scotland. Yet policy required some show of friendship and humanity to the Queen of Scots, who claimed as a suppliant her protection and aid. She professed her desire to do her justice, but first required that she should clear herself of the crimes alleged against her. To this Mary agreed, in the intrepidity of conscious innocence. In a conference held

for that purpose, Murray openly stood forth as the accuser of his sister and Queen, appealing to certain letters said to be written by her to Bothwell, plainly intimating her guilt. Copies of these letters were produced. Mary demanded the originals, boldly declaring them to be the forgeries of her enemies; but they were never produced. She retorted on Murray and Morton the charge of Darnley's murder; and the conference was broken off at the command of the Queen of England, who detained Mary in close imprisonment.

9. The ungenerous policy of Elisabeth was condemned by her own subjects. The Duke of Norfolk, the first of her nobility, and, though a Protestant, favoured by the Catholic party in England, secretly projected to marry the Queen of Scots; and the discovery of these views giving alarm to Elisabeth, brought that ill-fated nobleman to the block, and hastened the doom of the unfortunate Mary. Worn out with the miseries of her confinement, she privately solicited the aid of foreign princes for her deliverance. Her cause was espoused by all the Catholics of England;

and some of the most intemperate of these had formed a plot to deliver her from captivity, and to place her on the throne by the murder of Elisabeth. This dangerous conspiracy was discovered, and its authors deservedly suffered death. The schemes of Mary for her own deliverance were held presumptive of her acquiescence in the whole of the plot. Though an independent sovereign she was brought to trial before a foreign tribunal, which had already decreed her fate; and being condemned to suffer death, she was beheaded at Fotheringay Castle, 1587, in the forty-fifth year of her age, and nineteenth of her captivity in England. Previously to this event, Murray had fallen the victim of the private revenge of a gentleman whom he had injured, and Lethington poisoned himself in prison, to escape the sentence of his enemies; Morton, for some time Regent of the kingdom, was afterwards tried and suffered death for his concern in the murder of Darnley.

10. We have noticed the formidable preparations of Philip II. for the invasion of England, and their disastrous issue in the total destruction of the Invincible Armada.

The English, in their turn, made descents on the Spanish coasts; and the glory of the nation was nobly sustained by those great Admirals, Rawleigh, Howard, Drake, Cavendish, and Hawkins. The Earl of Essex distinguished himself in those expeditions, and won the favour of Elisabeth, both by his prowess and personal accomplishments. The death of Leicester, her former favourite, and of her minister Burleigh, left Essex unrivalled in her affections, and of chief authority in the direction of her councils. Haughty and impatient of control, he disgusted the nobles; and his failure in quelling a rebellion in Ireland gave them ground to undermine him in the favour of his Sovereign. In the madness of inordinate ambition, he proposed to possess himself of the person of the Queen, and compel her to remove his enemies, and acquiesce in all his measures. This treasonable enterprise brought him to the scaffold, 1600.

11. From that time Elisabeth fell into profound melancholy, and soon after died, in the seventieth year of her age, 1603,

having named for her successor James VI. King of Scotland. Her talents were great, and the firmness of her mind unequalled; yet her private character was tarnished by cruelty, hypocrisy, and an unsatiable desire of admiration. Her maxims of government were despotic, and she had little regard for the liberties of her people, or the privileges of her parliaments, to whom she never allowed the liberty of disputing her commands. The actual government of England in those days was little different from an absolute monarchy.

LVI.

HISTORY OF GREAT BRITAIN IN THE REIGNS OF JAMES I. AND CHARLES I.

1. James VI. of Scotland succeeded by hereditary right to the throne of England, thus uniting the two crowns; a prince of considerable learning and talents, but of little vigour of mind or political energy. He be-

came unpopular from his notions of an uncontrollable prerogative, to which unwisely proclaiming his title, he provoked his subjects to question it. The current of public opinion was now strongly turned to an extension of the rights of the subject, and retrenchment of the powers of the crown; and during this reign, the seeds were sown of that spirit of resistance on the part of the people, which was destined in the next to overturn the constitution.

2. Domestic events were such as chiefly distinguished the reign of James I. A conspiracy was discovered in 1603 for subverting the government, and placing the King's cousin, Arabella Stuart, on the throne, in which the Lords Cobham and Grey and Sir Walter Rawleigh were principally concerned. The two former were pardoned, and Rawleigh condemned, but reprieved; when, on the ground of his infringement of the peace with Spain, by unwarrantably attacking one of her American settlements, he was, after an interval of fifteen years, beheaded on his former sentence.

3. Another conspiracy followed of a still more dangerous nature, the gunpowder treason; a plot of the Catholics to destroy at one blow the King and the whole body of the parliament, 1604. It was discovered, from a circumstance of private friendship, on the very eve of its accomplishment; and the principal conspirators suffered a capital punishment. The public indignation now raged against the Catholics; and the humanity of James, which sought to mitigate this fury, was as ungenerously as absurdly construed into a favour which he entertained for their religious principles.

4. It was a peculiar weakness of the King to attach himself to undeserving favourites. Such was Carre Earl of Somerset, who had no other recommendation than a handsome person, and who, after several years exercise of all the insolence of power, fell into disgrace, on conviction of his concern in an infamous murder. His place was supplied by Villiers, afterwards Duke of Buckingham, a man devoid of every talent of a minister, and odious to all ranks of the state. He planned a journey of Charles Prince of Wales

into Spain to court the Infanta, and by his folly and insolence frustrated the treaty on the brink of its conclusion.

5. Elisabeth, the daughter of James, was married to the Protestant Elector Palatine, who was dispossessed of his electorate by the Emperor Ferdinand III. for imprudently accepting the crown of Bohemia, till then an appanage of the empire. James was urged by Parliament to a war in defence of his son-in-law, which touched the nation both as a point of honour, and as the cause of the Protestant interest. He sent a feeble armament, which was of no service; the only military enterprise of his reign. His favourite project was a complete union of the kingdoms of England and Scotland; a measure which, however beneficial, the mutual prejudices of the two nations were as yet too violent to bear. As a preparatory step, the Episcopal hierarchy was introduced into Scotland; but this served only as the food of future commotions. James I. died 1625, in the 59th year of his age, and 22d of his reign over England.

6. On an impartial estimate of the character of the succeeding monarch, Charles I., it may be allowed, that had the nation in his reign entertained the same ideas of the regal prerogative, of the powers of parliament, and of the liberty of the subject, that had prevailed for the two preceding centuries, this unfortunate Prince would have reigned with high popularity. But it was his lot to mount the throne at that critical period when the public opinion had undergone an entire revolution on those topics; and, with many excellent endowments both of head and heart, he wanted that political prudence which should have taught him to yield to the necessity of the times.

7. Charles quarrelled with his first parliament on their refusal of adequate supplies for the war in support of his brother-in-law the Elector Palatine. Engaged to his allies, the King, dissolving the parliament, issued warrants for borrowing money of the subject. A new parliament was found equally uncomplying, and evinced its jealousy of the King by the impeachment of his minister, Buckingham; Charles avenging the insult by

imprisoning two members of the House of Commons. A quarrel thus begun received continual addition from new causes of offence. The levying money from the subject was enforced by billeting soldiers on those who refused to lend to the crown; and some were even imprisoned on that account. A war was undertaken against France by Buckingham's instigation, a sufficient cause of its unpopularity; and it ended in a fruitless attempt on Rochelle. The King again dissolved his parliament, 1626.

8. A new parliament exhibited a spirit of determined reformation. A *Petition of Right* was passed by both Houses, which declared the illegality of raising money without their sanction, or enforcing loans from the subject, annulled all taxes imposed without consent of parliament, and abolished the exercise of the martial law; and Charles was obliged, with much reluctance, to give his assent to this great retrenchment of prerogatives, sanctioned by the usage of the most popular of his predecessors.

9. The taxes of tonnage and poundage had usually been continued from one reign to

another. On this ground the King conceived he was warranted to levy them without a new grant; and a member of the House of Commons was imprisoned on refusal to pay them. This arbitrary measure excited an outrageous ferment in that assembly, and the consequence was a new dissolution of the parliament, 1629.

10. It was now a measure of necessity to make peace with France and Spain. The King persevered in levying the tonnage, poundage, and ship-money, and high fines were imposed for various offences, without trial, by authority of the Star-chamber. The legality of the tax of ship-money was disputed by John Hampden; but he was condemned by the Court of Exchequer, contrary, as was generally thought, to justice and the laws of the realm.

11. These discontents were increased by religious enthusiasm. Charles, by the advice of Laud Archbishop of Canterbury, had relaxed the penalties against Catholics, and countenanced some innovations in the ceremonials of church worship, preludes, as they were termed, to the Popish idolatries. He had likewise im-

prudently attempted to introduce the liturgy of the church of England among the Scots; measures which excited in the latter country the most general discontent, and produced the most violent commotions. A bond, termed the *National Covenant,* containing an oath of resistance to all religious innovations, was subscribed in Scotland by all ranks and conditions; and in a General Assembly at Glasgow, the Episcopal hierarchy was solemnly abolished, 1638. To maintain this violent procedure, the Scots Reformers took up arms; and, after seizing and fortifying the most important places of strength in the kingdom, boldly marched into the heart of England.

12. It was now absolutely necessary to assemble a parliament; and the King at length saw that the torrent was irresistible, and resolved, though too late, to give it way. A bill passed for abolishing the tonnage and poundage without consent of parliament, and received the royal assent. Monopolies of every kind were abolished. A parliament was agreed to be summoned every third year. Unsatisfied with these concessions,

the Commons impeached the Earl of Strafford, the King's first minister, of high treason, together with Laud Archbishop of Canterbury, who were charged, as the chief counsellors of the crown, with a design of subverting the laws and constitution of the realm. The fate of Strafford, whose trial by his peers would have terminated in his acquittal, was secured by a bill of attainder, to which the King was, with the greatest reluctance, forced to give his assent. The Commons seized that moment of anguish to obtain his consent to a decisive measure, a bill which rendered the parliament perpetual, by declaring that it should not be dissolved or adjourned but by its own decree, 1641. Strafford and Laud were both beheaded.

13. This last measure of the Commons evinced a determined purpose to overturn the constitution. Their proceedings hitherto had the show of justice, and most of them might be vindicated on the principles of true patriotism. But from this period their conduct was treason to their country and its government.—The last bill destroyed the equal balance of the constitution of England, and

every subsequent measure was a step towards its entire annihilation.

14. The Irish Catholics took advantage of these disorders, and, with the purpose of assuming the entire command of that kingdom, and shaking off its dependence on England, attempted, in one day, to massacre all the Protestants in Ireland. To extinguish this horrible rebellion, Charles consigned to the parliament the charge of the war, which they interpreted into a transference to them of the whole military powers of the crown. Under this authority a great force was levied, and supplied with arms from the royal magazines.

15. The Bishops having complained that their lives were in danger from the populace, and protested against the proceedings of the Lords in their absence, were impeached of treason by the Commons, and committed to the Tower. The patience of Charles was exhausted. He caused to be impeached five of the Commons, and went in person to the house to seize them; a breach of the privilege of parliament, for which he found it necessary to atone by a humiliating message.

16. A new bill of the Commons, naming the commanders of all the fortified places, who should be responsible to parliament alone, was understood to be a declaration of war. The next step was to assume the whole legislative power, by declaring it a breach of privilege to dispute the law of the land declared by the Lords and Commons. But the former were mere name, being entirely under the control of the latter.

17. The sword was now to decide the contest. The royal cause was supported by a great proportion of the landed interest, all the friends of the established church, and all the Catholics in the kingdom. On the side of the parliament were the city of London and most of the greater towns, with all the dissenters and sectaries. The first campaign was favourable to the royalists. They defeated the parliamentary forces at Worcester and Edgehill, but lost the battle of Newbury.

18. The parliament now entered into a strict confederacy with the Scots, both in the articles of politics and religion; and the *Solemn League and Covenant*, a new bond, more specific in its objects than the former, and more

treasonable in its purpose, was framed at Edinburgh, for the purification of both churches, the reformation of both kingdoms, the maintenance of the privileges of King and parliament, and the bringing to justice all malignants. In consequence of this confederacy, 20,000 Scots took the field to co-operate with the forces of the parliament.

19. Oliver Cromwell commanded at this time a regiment of horse under Fairfax, general of the parliament, but in reality directed all the measures of the army. In Scotland the royal cause was gallantly sustained by the Marquis of Montrose; but all was lost in England by the defeat at Naseby, 1645. The King's troops being entirely dispersed, he threw himself into the hands of the Scots, who basely delivered him up to the commissioners of parliament, from whom he was taken by Cromwell's orders, and conducted to the army, now the masters of the kingdom. Cromwell, entering London, assumed an absolute control over the parliament, and imprisoned all who disputed his authority. Charles, escaping from his con-

finement, fled to the Isle of Wight, but was there detained a prisoner in Carisbrook Castle.

20. The parliament, suffering under this military usurpation, were now sincerely desirous of terminating a miserable anarchy by a treaty with the King, and, after a long negociation, all terms were finally adjusted. Charles agreed to resign to parliament the military power, the disposal of all the offices of state, and the right of creating peers without their consent; he agreed to abolish the Episcopal hierarchy, and to establish the Presbyterian discipline; and these concessions the parliament accepted by a majority of suffrages, and declared to be a sufficient basis for the settlement of the kingdom. Cromwell instantly surrounded the House of Commons, and, excluding all but his own partisans (about sixty in number), a second vote was passed, rescinding the former, and declaring it treason in a King to levy war against his parliament. A court of justice was then appointed to try the King for this act of treason. The House of Lords having unani-

mously rejected this decree, were immediately voted, by this junto of independents, to be an useless branch of the constitution.

21. Charles was brought to trial; and, refusing to acknowledge the authority of his judges, was condemned to suffer death. He was beheaded on the 30th of January, 1649. The arbitrary proceedings of this monarch in the beginning of his reign were certainly sufficient to justify that resistance on the part of the people which at length produced its effect, in confining the regal authority within its just bounds, and securing the rational liberties of the subject. But from the period that this end was attained, resistance ceased to be lawful. Its farther operations were criminal in the extreme. The subsequent usurpations of the Commons can no more be justified on any constitutional principle, than the murder of the King can be defended on the score of legality, justice, or humanity.

LVII.

THE COMMONWEALTH OF ENGLAND.

1. The Parliament of Scotland had taken no part in these latter scenes, and had formally protested against the trial of the King. On his death they proclaimed Charles II. their Sovereign, but on the express condition of his signing the Covenant, and ratifying their Confession of Faith. Ireland recognised him without any conditions. The heroic Marquis of Montrose landed in the north of Scotland with a few foreign troops, and attempted to reduce the party of the Covenanters, and establish the legal authority of the King, independent of the servile restrictions with which they had fettered it; but, attacked by a much superior force, he was defeated, and betrayed into the hands of his enemies, who put him to death by the hands of the executioner, 1650; displaying in the circumstances of his punishment all

the insolence of cruelty which distinguishes revenge in the meanest of souls. Charles betook himself to Scotland, and was obliged, however reluctantly, to acquiesce in all the terms that were imposed on him.

2. Cromwell, with 16,000 men, marched into Scotland against the now royalist Covenanters, whom he defeated in the battle of Dunbar; and then following the royal army, which retreated into England, he cut them to pieces in the decisive battle of Worcester, September 3. 1651. Charles fled in disguise through the western and southern counties till he found an opportunity of escaping to France. Cromwell returned in triumph to London.

3. The republican parliament formed and executed great designs. A war with Holland was most ably maintained on both sides by those great naval commanders, Blake, Van Tromp, and De Ruyter; but the advantage was greatly in favour of the English, who took above 1600 of the Dutch ships. The Parliament, proud of these successes, justly conceived that while the nation was thus powerful at sea, the land army was an unne-

cessary burden, and determined to reduce it. To prevent this measure, Cromwell framed a remonstrance of the army, demanding the election of a new parliament; and this meeting with no regard, he entered the House of Commons, which he had surrounded with his troops, and, declaring the parliament dissolved by his authority, forcibly turned the members out of doors. The republic of England, which had subsisted four years and three months, was thus annihilated, in one moment, April 20. 1653.

4. It was necessary, however, that there should be the appearance of a parliament. A few mean persons, of fanatical character, were chosen by Cromwell's partisans, from the different counties of England, with five from Scotland, and six from Ireland, to hold their functions for fifteen months. This assembly, termed *Barebone's Parliament,* from its leading member, a leather-seller, became the scorn of the public, and was dissolved by its own vote, after five months.

5. The government was now vested in the Council of Officers, who nominated Oliver Cromwell Lord Protector of the three king-

doms, invested him with the power of making peace, war, and alliance, and authorised a standing army of 30,000 men to be kept up for the support of government. His administration was despotic, vigorous, and spirited. He maintained the honour of the nation in the war with the Dutch, compelling them to yield the honour of the flag, and to compensate to the India Company all its losses. He was successful likewise in his negociations with France and Spain. But in his domestic government he was traversed by his parliaments, whom it cost him a continual struggle, and even violence, to keep in order. One parliament, properly prepared, voted him the regal title, which, by the counsel of his best friends, he was forced most unwillingly to refuse. In recompense of this self-denial, the parliament confirmed his title of Protector, with a fixed revenue, and decreed his right of appointing a successor. He was King in all but the name.

6. By consent of Parliament, Cromwell appointed a House of Lords; but all the ancient Peers declined the proffered honour. He was forced to choose them from the Commons;

and thus he lost the majority in the Lower House. His temper soured with disappointment, a prey to chagrin, and in continual fear of assassination, he fell at length into a mortal disease, and died in the 59th year of his age, 3d September, 1658.

7. Richard Cromwell, son of Oliver, succeeded, by his father's appointment, to the Protectorate; a man of weak understanding and facile temper, utterly unfit for his hazardous situation, which accordingly he maintained only for a few months, resigning his office on the 22d April, 1659. His brother Henry, Viceroy of Ireland, immediately followed his example; and the family of the Cromwells, which the talents of one man had elevated above the Sovereigns of their country, returned once more to its original obscurity.

8. The remains of that nominal parliament which had put the King to death, termed, in derision, the *Rump*, was now dissolved by the Council of Officers. Of these every aspiring individual had his own separate views of ambition. Intrigue, cabal, and anarchy, were universal; and the nation, looking forward

with horror to a series of calamities, began earnestly to desire the restitution of its ancient government. George Monk, commander of the army in Scotland, judged these symptoms favourable for restoring the exiled monarch to the throne of his ancestors. Marching his army into England, he declared his resolution to bring about the election of a free parliament, which all men knew to be synonymous with the restoration of the King. It was of course violently opposed by the republican party, who even attempted to excite a new civil war; but they were forced at length to acquiesce in the measure. A free parliament was assembled; and a message being presented from Charles, offering a full indemnity, complete liberty of conscience, and payment to the army of all arrears, it was received with transports of joy, and Charles II. proclaimed King, 29th May, 1660.

LVIII.

THE REIGNS OF CHARLES II. AND JAMES II.

1. THE nation, without imposing any terms on their new Sovereign, trusted implicitly to his good dispositions. These were humane and complacent; but the character of Charles, indolent, luxurious, and prodigal, was neither fitted to support the national honour abroad, nor to command obedience and respect to his domestic government. The sale of Dunkirk was a measure offensive to the pride of the nation. A war with Holland, supported at a vast expense, and maintained in many desperate but indecisive engagements, was attended finally with no material benefit. By the treaty of Breda, concluded in 1667, New York was secured to the English, the Isle of Polerone to the Dutch, and Acadia, in North America, to the French.

2. The sale of Dunkirk, and the unsuccessful issue of the war, attributed to the

counsel of the Earl of Clarendon, procured the disgrace and banishment of that illustrious man, 1667. The peace was scarcely concluded with Holland, when England joined with her and Sweden in a triple alliance, to oppose the progress of the arms of Lewis XIV. in the Low Countries; and that object being attained, by the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, in 1668, the French monarch gained the English over to his interest, in a new war against the Dutch, which brought their Republic to the brink of destruction.

3. The domestic administration of Charles was embroiled from various causes, originating in the personal character and dispositions of the Sovereign. He trusted to profligate and worthless counsellors. His arbitrary notions of government, and the partiality he showed to the Catholics, gave perpetual alarm and uneasiness to a great proportion of his subjects. Complaints resounded from every quarter; and the parliament required a test oath, abjuring Popery, from all persons in public employment. On refusal to take this oath, the King's brother,

James Duke of York, was deprived of his office of High Admiral.

4. Titus Oates, a worthless impostor, pretended to have discovered a plot of the Catholics for assassinating the King, burning London, massacring the Protestants, and placing the Duke of York on the throne. Another villain, named Bedloe, joined his evidence to that of Oates; and on their perjured testimony, afterwards fully exposed, a few miserable priests suffered death. A new test was imposed, which excluded all Papists from both Houses of Parliament. The Treasurer Danby was impeached for advising the last peace with France, though it was proved that he had acted by his Sovereign's orders; and a bill passed the House of Commons, excluding the Duke of York from the succession to the crown. A more important bill for the general liberty, the act of *Habeas Corpus*, was the work of the same session of parliament. (See Sect. LIX. § 14.)

5. The distinguishing epithets of Whig and Tory were now first known; the former, the opposers of the Crown, against the latter, its

partisans; and each party, as in all factions, carried its principles to an extreme. The Whigs, predominant in the next parliament, raged with fury against the Catholics, and insisted on the King's assent to the bill for the exclusion of his brother. He had no other expedient but to dissolve them, but found their successors equally violent. After various fruitless attempts to conciliate their favour to his measures, a dissolution ensued of this parliament, the last which Charles assembled.

6. But the great cause of dissatisfaction remained. The Duke of York was at the bottom of all the measures of government. A conspiracy was formed by Shaftesbury, Russel, Sidney, and the Duke of Monmouth, natural son of the King, on the pretence of vindicating the national liberties. It was discovered by one of the associates, and Russel and Sidney suffered a capital punishment. The detection of this conspiracy strengthened the authority of the Sovereign. The Duke of York was restored to his office of High Admiral, and tacitly acknowledged as the successor to the crown. Charles II.

died 6th February, 1685, in the 55th year of his age, and 25th year of his reign.

7. The Duke of York succeeded to the throne by the title of James II. His reign was short and inglorious. He was the instrument of his own misfortunes, and ran headlong to destruction. The Catholics at this time were not the hundredth part of the nation, yet James was weak enough to make the desperate attempt of substituting the Popish faith in room of the Protestant. Discarding the nobility from his councils, he was directed solely by Romish priests; and in the very outset of his reign expressed his contempt of the authority of Parliament, and a firm purpose to exercise an unlimited despotism.

8. The Duke of Monmouth, having excited a new rebellion, was defeated, made prisoner, and beheaded; and the most inhuman rigour was shown in the punishment of all his partisans. The parliament was in general submissive to the King's will, which for a while met with no opposition or control. A declaration was published, establishing full liberty of conscience in matters of religion; and several

bishops, who refused to publish it in their dioceses, were committed to prison. A Catholic president was appointed to one of the colleges of Oxford. An ambassador was sent to the Pope, and a papal nuncio received in London. The Catholics openly boasted that theirs would soon be the religion of the state.

9. James had three children: Mary, the wife of the Stadtholder William Prince of Orange; Anne, married to Prince George of Denmark; and James, an infant. The Stadtholder had looked on his right to the crown of England as certain before the birth of this infant, and, after that event, projected still to gain it by arms or intrigue; the infatuation of the King and the general discontent of the people giving him the most flattering invitation. James himself was informed of these views of his son-in-law, but would give them no credit, till actually apprised of his landing with an army, 15th November, 1688.

10. The principal nobility and officers immediately joined the standard of the Prince of Orange; and James was at once abandoned by his people, his ministers, his favourites,

and his own children. Leaving London in disguise, he was discovered and brought back by the populace; but the Prince of Orange wisely favouring his escape, he found means a few days after to convey himself to France.

11. The throne being declared vacant, it was proposed in a convention-parliament, that the crown should be settled on the Princess Mary and her issue, her husband governing as Regent; whom failing, on the Princess Anne. The Stadtholder declining the office of Regent, it was finally resolved to confer the crown on the Prince and Princess of Orange, the former to have the sole administration of the government.

12. To this settlement was added a declaration fixing the rights of the subject and the royal prerogative. Of this the most important articles are the following: The King cannot suspend the laws or their execution; he cannot levy money without consent of Parliament: The subjects have right to petition the Crown: A standing army cannot be kept up in time of peace but by consent of Parliament: Elections and parliamentary de-

bate must be free, and parliaments must be frequently assembled, &c. Such was the final settlement of the British government at the great aera of the Revolution. At this period, when the constitution of the country became fixed and determined, we finish the sketch of the history of our own country.

LIX.

ON THE BRITISH CONSTITUTION.

1. THE rudiments of the constitution of England may be traced as far back as the Norman conquest. William distributed a great proportion of the lands among his Norman followers, subjecting these, as well as the Anglo-Saxons who retained their property, to the feudal tenures, and thus extinguishing at once the ancient liberties of the people.—England was divided into 60,215 military fiefs, all held of the Crown, under the obligation of the vassal's taking arms for

his Sovereign whenever required. In the continental kingdoms of Europe, as in France, the feudal system arose by slow degrees, nor was there of consequence the same union of the fabric as in England. The feudal lords were independent of each other, ever at variance from their mutual pretensions, and often owing but a very slender allegiance to the Crown. Their vassals suffered from oppression, and often struggled for their freedom; but these efforts being partial produced no consequence favourable to the liberty of the nation. In England all were oppressed by the enormous weight of the Crown; it was a common grievance, and produced at times a violent effort for the general liberties of the people.

2. The forest-laws imposed by the Conqueror (see Sect. XV. § 2. 11.) were a grievance felt by the whole nation, as rendering every man's property precarious, and subject to the arbitrary encroachments of the Crown. It was no wonder that the barons and their vassals should cordially unite to rid themselves of so intolerable a hardship. Henry I.

found it necessary to conciliate his subjects, by mitigating the most rigorous of the feudal laws. A greater advance was made under Henry II. by the institution of the trial by jury. But John, imprudently resisting this natural progress towards a rational freedom, was soon compelled into those important concessions, the *Charta de Foresta* and *Magna Charta*. From that time, whatever we may judge of the actual government, which was often most arbitrary and despotical, the constitution of England was that of a limited monarchy.

3. The next memorable aera in the growth of the English constitution was the reign of Henry III., when, under that weak prince, the parliament received a new form, by the admission of the representatives of the people, the deputies of the counties and boroughs. (Sect. XXII. § 2.) His successor Edward I. acknowledged their authority in obtaining all his subsidies, and ratified a new law, which declared, that no tax should be levied without the consent of Lords and Commons.—The *Magna Charta* was confirmed no less than eleven times in the course of this reign.

4. Thus the constitution continued advancing, till its progress was suspended by the civil wars of York and Lancaster. The rights of both prince and people seemed then to be entirely forgotten; and the race of Tudor found no resistance from parliament to their vigorous but despotic sway. The talents of Elizabeth, and the high character which her government sustained with foreign powers, extinguished all domestic disquiets, while the predominant feeling was the maintenance of the power and dignity of the crown.

5. But under the succeeding prince, when that power and dignity were abased by his own weakness, the nation began to awake from its lethargy; and that spirit of opposition, which in this reign confined itself to complaints, was in the next to break forth with alarming violence. Charles I., endowed with superior energy of character, and acting, as he conceived, on a principle of duty, which called on him to maintain the prerogative of his predecessors, and transmit it unimpaired to his posterity, was imprudent in exerting with rigour an authority which he

wanted ultimate resources to support. He was compelled to sign the *Petition of Rights*, a grant more favourable to liberty than *Magna Charta.* The true patriots were satisfied with this concession, which conferred the most ample constitutional freedom. But with the popular leaders patriotism was the cloke of insatiable ambition; and, advancing in their demands with every new compliance, the last appeal was made to the sword, and the contest ended by the destruction of the constitution.

6. The despotism which succeeded, and the fluctuation of power from the Long Parliament to the Protector, and finally to the leaders of a standing army, afforded convincing demonstration how vain was the chimera of a republic, under which the demagogues had masked their designs. Weary of anarchy, the nation returned with high satisfaction to the best of all constitutions, a limited monarchy.

7. New encroachments under Charles II. produced new limitations, and the act of *Habeas Corpus* gave the utmost possible security to personal liberty. The violent and

frantic invasion of the constitution by James II. banished himself and his posterity from the throne, and produced a new and solemn contract between the King and people. Regarding, therefore, the Revolution as the final settlement of the English constitution, we shall endeavour briefly to delineate the chief features of that great political structure.

8. The constitution of Great Britain may be viewed under two distinct heads, the legislative and the executive power: the last comprehending the prerogative of the Crown.

The power of legislation belongs to parliament, whose constituent parts are, the King, Lords, and Commons. The House of Lords consists of the temporal peers of England, and the spiritual, viz. the two archbishops and twenty-four bishops. To these, since the union with Scotland and Ireland, are added sixteen delegates from the peerage of the former kingdom, and thirty-two from the latter. The House of Commons consists of the deputies of the counties and principal towns of England, and the two universities, amounting in all to 513 members; to whom, since the

unions, are added 45 from Scotland and 100 from Ireland. These deputies are chosen by the freeholders who possess a property yielding a certain yearly rent. The Chancellor generally presides in the House of Lords; the Speaker is president in the House of Commons.

9. The King is the most essential component part of parliament, because he alone has the power to convoke, prorogue, and dissolve it. He has likewise a negative on all its acts, which are invalid without his approbation; and each house has a negative on the decrees of the other. It is likewise competent to the King to propose any measure to be laid before the parliament.

10. All questions regarding public affairs and national measures may originate in either house of parliament, except grants of money, which must take their rise in the House of Commons, and cannot be altered, though they may be rejected by the Lords. The matter must be primarily discussed in that house in which it originates, and, until there decided, cannot be received by the other, unless a conference should be demanded. A bill refused

by either house, or, though passed by both, refused by the King, is utterly void.

11. The executive power of government is lodged in the King. (1.) The first branch of his office is the administration of justice. The judges of all courts of judicature are the King's substitutes. He is the prosecutor of all crimes, and has the power of pardoning and suspending the execution of all sentences. (2.) He is the fountain of all honour, the giver of all titles and dignities, and the disposer of all the offices of state. (3.) He is the superintendant of commerce, and has the power of regulating weights and measures, and of coining money. (4.) He is the head of the church, and names the archbishops and bishops. (5.) He is commander in chief of all the sea and land forces, and can alone equip fleets, levy armies, and appoint all their officers. (6.) He has the power of making war, peace, and alliance, and of sending and receiving ambassadors. (7.) He is above the reach of all courts of justice, and is not responsible to any judicature for his conduct in the administration of government.

12. These high powers of the Sovereign, which, at first sight, would seem to render

him an absolute monarch, are thus admirably controlled: — The King is dependent on parliament for all subsidies, without which he can neither maintain his fleets and armies, nor pay the salaries of officers. The parliament indeed settles a revenue on the King for life, but this is merely sufficient for the maintenance of his household, and supporting a proper dignity of establishment; and as it must be renewed by parliament at the beginning of every reign, it is in the power of that body to withhold it till all abuses shall be remedied. Thus the constitution may be brought back at those periods to its first principles, and all encroachments of the prerogative restrained.

13. The King can never reign without a parliament. It must by law be assembled once in three years, on a notice of forty days before its meeting. Although the head of the church, the King cannot alter the established religion, nor frame ecclesiastical regulations; these must be made by the assembly of the clergy. The King cannot interfere in the ordinary administration of justice, nor refuse his consent to the prosecution of crimes. He may pardon offences, but cannot exempt the

offender from pecuniary compensation to the party injured. He cannot alter the standard of money, either in weight or alloy. He cannot raise an army without the consent of parliament; and though a moderate standing force is kept up with their consent, the funds for its payment require an annual renewal by parliament.

Finally, although the Sovereign himself is not amenable to any judicature, his ministers are responsible for all the measures of government, and are impeachable by the Commons at the bar of the House of Lords, for every species of misconduct or misdemeanour.

Moreover, the freedom of parliamentary discussion is secured, as no member can be questioned for any opinions or words, but in that house of parliament in which they were uttered.

14. The personal security and the rights of the subjects are farther guarded by these three peculiarities of the British constitution, the *Habeas Corpus*, Trial by Juries, and the Liberty of the Press. By the act of *Habeas Corpus* every prisoner must be brought before a judge, the cause of his detainer certified,

and the judge's authority interposed to it. The violation of this statute is punishable by the highest penalties. The *Habeas Corpus* may be suspended in times of danger to the state, as during the existence of a conspiracy or rebellion. Although this act does not extend to Scotland, the subjects of that part of the United Kingdom are equally secured by their own laws. *

15. All crimes must be tried by a jury of twelve men in England and Ireland, and fifteen in Scotland. The prisoner has a right of challenging or objecting to the jurors; and (except in Scotland) without showing any cause he may challenge twenty successively in ordinary cases, and thirty-five in cases of treason. The jury are judges both of the law and the fact; nor has the opinion of the Court any weight in their decision, but such as they choose to give it.

16. The liberty of the press is in this respect a guardian of the constitution, that it is competent for any individual to convey to the

* Statute 1701, c. 6.

public his opinion of the whole conduct of government, and the merits of its conductors; to canvas every counsel of state, and examine every public measure; thus forcibly restraining all ministers and magistrates within the limits of their duty. It is farther the guardian of injured innocence, and the redresser of all wrongs that evade the cognisance of law. Yet this most valuable right, if itself unrestrained, would be the source of the greatest mischief. If it were allowable with impunity to assail the established government, to convulse society, to disseminate Atheism, to injure the reputation or endanger the life and property of individuals by false accusations, there would be an end of all liberty and civil happiness. The liberty of the press consists in this, that there is no examination of writings previous to their being printed and published; but, after publication, such writings as offend in any of the above particulars, are, on trial of the offence by jury, punishable by law. Thus the public is properly constituted the judge and censor of all writings addressed to itself.

17. Such are briefly the outlines of the admirable fabric of the British constitution. *Esto perpetua!*

LX.

OF THE PUBLIC REVENUE OF GREAT BRITAIN.

1. THE property belonging to the Crown of Great Britain, which was anciently very great, and fully adequate to the maintenance of government, consisted of domain-lands, the first fruits and tenths of church-benefices, the rents of vacant bishoprics and abbeys, the profits of military tenures, fines imposed in courts of justice, forfeitures, &c. These are now from alienations made by the Sovereigns, and retrenchments of their prerogative, become so inconsiderable, that the King may be considered as entirely dependent on the people for the support of his dignity, and the means of carrying on the business of the state. The public revenue, destined both for the former and latter purpose, arises now

from the subsidies granted by the people. The supplies are voted by the Commons, and the means of furnishing them by taxes proposed by the Chancellor of the Exchequer, must receive their sanction.

2. Of these taxes, some are annual, as the land-tax and malt-tax; and others perpetual, as the customs, excise, salt-duty, post-office duty, stamps, house and window-tax, duties on servants, hackney-coaches, pensions, &c. The customs are a tax paid by the merchant on all imported and exported commodities; the excise an inland imposition, laid sometimes on the consumer, and sometimes on the retail-seller.

3. The produce of these taxes is, in the first place, destined to the paying the interest of the national debt, and afterwards to the ordinary support of government.

The national debt arose soon after the Revolution, when it was thought hazardous to impose annual taxes equal to the annual expense of government, and more expedient to borrow large sums for the immediate service of the state, raising annually no more than to pay the interest of that debt. The

same system has been since persevered in; so that the national debt, which a century ago was 16 millions, is now above 300 millions. To pay the interest of this enormous sum, the produce of the taxes (excepting the malt and land-tax) are primarily destined; and as somewhat more is annually raised than that exigence and the maintenance of government demand, the surplus constitutes a *sinking fund* for paying off the principal of the debt.

4. The produce of the taxes, originally separate funds, is now thrown into two or three capital funds, one of which is mortgaged by parliament for the maintenance of the King's household and the civil list, viz. the salaries of officers of state, judges, ambassadors, private expenses, pensions, &c.

5. Notwithstanding the little prospect of an extinction of the national debt, government maintains its credit, and will always find lenders, because the terms granted are beneficial, and the security is transferable; so that a lender can thus always obtain payment of his principal sum, and frequently make gain by the transference. The value

of stock rises and falls from various occasional causes, as national prosperity, or the reverse, plenty or scarcity of money, quantity of public debt. On this variation is founded the practice of stock-jobbing; that is, either buying and selling actual property in the public funds, which is a lawful speculation, or gaming and wagering on the price of stock, which is an illicit though common practice. The practice of stock-jobbing, even by the transference of actual property, far more by gaming on that which is fictitious, is prejudicial to commerce and manufactures, by engrossing a great part of the national wealth, repressing industry, encouraging fraud, and often tempting to the most treacherous and dangerous devices for raising and sinking the funds.

LXI.

HISTORY OF FRANCE UNDER LEWIS XIII.

1. FRANCE, which under Henry IV. had risen from a state of miserable anarchy to high prosperity and splendour, sunk, upon his death, into weakness, faction, and disorder. Mary of Medici, Regent in the minority of her son Lewis XIII., a weak woman, and of restless ambition, disgusted the nobility by her partiality for her Italian courtiers. Concini, her first minister, created Marshal d'Ancre, became so universally odious, that he was openly murdered in the Louvre, and his body torn to pieces. The Queen was removed from Paris, and kept for two years a prisoner at Blois, till relieved by the Duke d'Epernon, to serve his own purposes of ambition. The Queen's party was at war with that of her son, and the whole kingdom in a state of anarchy.

2. The genius of Cardinal Richelieu, who

was now brought into power by Mary of Medici, soon effected a wonderful change. He reconciled the mother and her son, soothed the contending factions, and, on the King's assuming the government, directed every public measure to the complete re-establishment of the power and dignity of the monarchy. The party of the Calvinists, alienated by persecution, attempted to throw off their allegiance, and establish an independent state, of which Rochelle should be the capital. Richelieu bargained with the Dutch to furnish a fleet for subduing their Protestant brethren, and the Dutch now fought as keenly for the Catholic religion as they had lately done for the Protestant. The English sent a fleet to the aid of the Rochellois, who for a year maintained a most obstinate siege against the French troops commanded by the Cardinal in person. They were at length forced to surrender; and Rochelle, with all the other Protestant cities of France, were stripped of their privileges, and had their fortifications destroyed. Thus Calvinism was for ever crushed in France.

3. Lewis XIII., though a weak Prince, saw his advantage in entering into all the great designs of his minister. Richelieu influenced the politics of all Europe. The power of Austria was attacked in Germany, Flanders, Spain, and Italy; and the talents of the minister were equally displayed in active war, in foreign negociation, and in his domestic arrangements. Yet at this very time a formidable cabal was undermining him. Mary of Medici was jealous of the man she had raised, and the Duke of Orleans, the King's brother, sought to supplant him in his power. Richelieu, with astonishing intrepidity of mind, repressed this conspiracy. Fortified by the King's authority, he seized the Marshal de Marillac, one of his most dangerous enemies, at the head of his army, and tried and put him to death by a lawless stretch of power. Orleans, apprehensive of a similar fate, fled the kingdom; and Mary of Medici, arrested and removed from court, ended her career of ambition in voluntary exile at Brussels. Orleans, supported by the Duke de Montmorenci, attempted a rebellion; but their army was defeated, and Montmorenci

executed for treason. The Queen had taken part with the enemies of the Cardinal. He imprisoned her confessor, seized and examined her papers; and Anne of Austria was very near sharing the fate of Mary of Medici.

4. Amidst all this turbulence both of foreign war and state cabal, Richelieu cultivated the pursuits of literature, encouraged the sciences, instituted the French Academy, and composed pieces for the theatre. The administration of Richelieu, though turbulent from faction and civil war, was, on the whole, extremely glorious for France, and the seeds were sown of the splendour of that monarchy in the succeeding age of Lewis XIV. The death of this great minister, 1642, was soon after followed by that of his Sovereign, Lewis XIII., 1643.

LXII.

SPAIN UNDER PHILIP III. AND PHILIP IV.—CONSTITUTION OF PORTUGAL AND OF SPAIN.

1. FROM the death of Philip II. Spain declined in power, and, notwithstanding her great sources of wealth, the national finances were in the utmost disorder. Philip III. was forced to conclude a peace with the Dutch, and to restore to the house of Nassau its confiscated estates. With a weak and despicable policy, he expelled from his kingdom all the Moors, who were the most industrious of its inhabitants, 1610; and this depopulation, joined to that already produced by her American colonies, rendered Spain a lifeless and enervated mass.

2. The national weakness and its disorders increased under Philip IV., who, equally spiritless as his father, was implicitly ruled by his minister Olivarez, as the former had been by the Duke of Lerma. His reign was one

continued series of miscarriages and defeats. The Dutch seized Brazil; the French invaded Artois; Catalonia revolted to France; and Portugal shook off its yoke, and became an independent kingdom.

3. No revolution was ever effected with such ease and celerity as that of Portugal. The people were disgusted with the rigorous and impolitic administration of Olivarez. The Duke of Braganza, descended from the ancient kings of Portugal, had at this time the command of the army. Instigated by the ambition of his Duchess, and seeing the spirit of the nation favourable to his views, he caused himself to be proclaimed King at Lisbon. The Spanish guards were attacked and routed, and the chief partisans of the government put to death by the populace. All the principal towns followed the example of the capital, and soon after all the foreign settlements. From that aera, 1640, Portugal became an independent sovereignty, after having been for sixty years an appanage of the kingdom of Spain.

4. The government of Portugal approaches to an absolute monarchy. The consent of the states or *Cortes*, consisting of Clergy, Nobility, and Commons, was formerly necessary to the imposition of taxes, and the settlement of the succession to the crown. But this assembly, never convoked but by the royal mandate, has now for a long time ceased to meet. The ordinary business of government is transacted by the King and his council of state, which is appointed by himself. The crown's revenue arises from its domains, including the family-estates of Braganza, from the duties on exports and imports, from the taxes, and from a stated proportion of the gold brought from Brazil. The state of the commerce and manufactures of Portugal is extremely low; and, though favoured by soil and climate, the agriculture of the kingdom is much neglected.

5. The reigns of Philip III. and IV. of Spain, though an aera of national humiliation, derived some small lustre from the state of literature. Dramatic composition, poetry,

and romance, and even history, were cultivated with great success. But these are in some sort the amusements of indolence, and this was the predominant character of the people. This character may have arisen from two sources: The torrent of wealth poured in from America retarded, in the lower classes, domestic industry and manufactures, while it increased the pride of the gentry, and made them disdain all occupation; and the despotism of the government is strongly repressive of all enterpise and activity in the people.

6. The constitution of Spain, of which the sovereignty was in ancient times elective, is now that of an absolute monarchy. The crown is hereditary; though at different times, as in 1619 and 1713, there has been a new limitation made by the monarch of the succession. The *Cortes*, or states of the kingdom, limited in former times the power of the Sovereign, but Charles V. reduced their authority to nothing, by depriving the nobility and clergy of their seat in those assemblies; the remaining members, the deputies of

the towns, being entirely under the control of the Monarch. The King's council, or *Conseja Real*, is the organ of government; but there is no department of the state which has any constitutional power to regulate the will of the Prince.

LXIII.

AFFAIRS OF GERMANY FROM THE ABDICATION OF CHARLES V. TO THE PEACE OF WESTPHALIA.

1. To preserve the connection of the affairs of Germany with those of the other kingdoms of Europe, we must look back to the period of the abdication of Charles V., when the empire was distracted both by the political factions and quarrels of its independent princes, and the contending sects of the Catholics, Lutherans, and Calvinists. Ferdinand attempted to reconcile these factions, and unite the three religions, but in vain. Maximilian II. had still less power to effect this

object than his predecessor; nor was the face of affairs at all changed during the succeeding reigns of Rodolphus II. and Matthias. A civil war of thirty years' duration reduced the empire to extremity. Under Ferdinand II., a zealous Catholic, the Protestant states of Bohemia, who had suffered under the government of Matthias, conferred their crown on the Elector Palatine; and the Emperor, in revenge, deprived him both of his crown and his electorate.

2. The Protestant cause was declining fast in Germany, and every thing seemed to indicate success to the schemes of Ferdinand for its entire annihilation, when it received new vigour from the intervention of Gustavus Adolphus King of Sweden. This great Prince defeated the Imperial Generals, and carried the Protestant banners triumphantly through Germany. The Emperor was completely humbled, and the Elector Palatine on the eve of restoration to his dominions, when the heroic Gustavus was slain in the battle of Lutzen, 1632. The war was successfully prosecuted by the Swedish Generals, while

Cardinal Richelieu harassed the House of Austria both in Germany and Spain.

3. In the succeeding reign of Ferdinand III. the Protestants of Germany found the most active support both from the Swedes and the French; and the Emperor being forced to conclude the peace of Westphalia, 1648, these powers dictated its terms. By this celebrated treaty all disputes were settled between the contending princes of the empire and the contending religions. The Swedes were indemnified for the charges of the war, and acquired Pomerania, Stettin, Wismar, &c., and their Sovereign the dignity of Prince of the empire; the Palatine family was restored to its chief possessions; the King of France made Landgrave of Alsace; and an equal establishment decreed of the three religions. This salutary peace laid the foundation of the future greatness and prosperity of the German empire.

LXIV.

FRANCE UNDER LEWIS XIV.

1. On the death of Lewis XIII., 1663, his son Lewis XIV. succeeded to the throne in the fifth year of his age. Europe, as we have seen, was in a most turbulent state; and France, under the administration of Richelieu, acted a conspicuous part in exciting those general commotions. The Queen-mother, Anne of Austria, appointed Regent by the states, chose for her minister the Cardinal Mazarin, an Italian, and from that circumstance odious to the people. The Spaniards, taking advantage of the King's miniority and the popular discontents, made an attack on Champagne; but they were defeated in a series of engagements by the great Condé; and the Marshal de Turenne shared with him the palm of glory. The peace of Westphalia composed these differences.

2. At this very time the commotions of the *Fronde* broke out in Paris. The jealousy felt by the nobility of Mazarin's power, the unpopularity of his measures, the disorder of the finances, and the oppression of new taxes, inflamed the nation; and the intrigues of the coadjutor, afterwards Cardinal de Retz, blew up this flame into a civil war. The parliament of Paris took part with the rebels, who were headed by the Prince of Conti, the Dukes of Longueville and Bouillon, and the chief nobility. The Queen and the royal family removed to St. Germain's, and the ministerial party besieged Paris. Turenne, who at first supported them, was gained over by the rebels. The women, who have always their part in the disturbances of France, had a conspicuous share in those of the *Fronde*. A short pacification ensued; but the imprudent violence of Mazarin soon renewed the disorders. At length the parliament of Paris assumed the right of banishing this unpopular minister, who retired to the Imperial dominions, though his influence continued still to regulate the measures of state.

3. A change ensued on the King's coming of age, 1652. De Retz and Orleans, the chief promoters of the rebellion, were banished, and Mazarin resumed his station as minister.—Condé had joined the Spaniards in an attack on the French Netherlands, but was overmatched by Turenne, who revenged this insult by the taking of Dunkirk, and several fortified towns under the Spanish government. Dunkirk was, by convention with Cromwell, ceded to the English, and afterwards sold back to France, as we have seen, by Charles II.

4. The war with Spain was ended in 1659, by the peace of the Pyrenees. Many cessions were made on both sides, but France kept Roussillon and part of Artois. It was stipulated that Lewis XIV. should marry the Infanta, daughter of Philip IV., but should renounce all right that might thence open to the crown of Spain.

5. The treaty of the Pyrenees gave peace to the south of Europe; and the wars in the north between Sweden, Poland, and Denmark, which arose after the abdication of Christina of Sweden, were terminated in the year following by

the treaty of Oliva. Christina, a singular but not a great character, held the sceptre of Sweden for twenty-two years after the death of her father, Gustavus Adolphus; till at length, tired of the cares of government, and affecting a passion for literature and philosophy, she resigned the crown in 1654, to her cousin Charles X.; an example which was followed soon after by Casimar King of Poland, though after an honourable reign, and for a better reason, age and sickness.

6. Mazarin died in 1661, and Lewis XIV. entered on a vigorous and splendid career. The finances, which from the time of Henry IV. had been in extreme disorder, were admirably regulated by Colbert; and the commerce and manufactures of the kingdom, wisely encouraged by government, were soon in the most flourishing situation. The canal of Languedoc joined the Bay of Biscay and the Mediterranean; the principal sea-ports were enlarged and fortified; and the internal police of the kingdom was regularly and strictly enforced. The arms of France aided at the same time England against the Dutch, Germany against the Turks, and Portugal against Spain.

7. On the death of Philip IV. Lewis, on pretence that Spain had failed in payment of the dowry of his Queen, besieged and took Lisle, with several other fortified towns of Flanders, and in the next campaign made himself master of Franche-Comté. The Sovereign marched with his armies, but the glory of these conquests was owing to Turenne and Vauban. The triple alliance formed by England, Holland, and Sweden, checked this career, and brought about the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, 1668, by which Lewis, though he retained Flanders, restored Franche-Comté, and confirmed the peace of the Pyrenees.

8. The strength and prosperity of the kingdom continued to increase under the able administration of Colbert and Louvois. The civil factions of Holland between the Stadtholder and the party of the De Wits, tempted Lewis to undertake the conquest of that country; and England, Germany, and Sweden, favoured his views. He overran the provinces of Utrecht, Overyssel, and Guelderland, and advanced almost to the gates of

Amsterdam, when the Dutch inundated the country by letting in the sea, and the French were forced to retreat.

9. The confederate powers now became jealous of the ascendancy of France; and the Prince of Orange had sufficient influence with England, and both branches of the house of Austria, to obtain their alliance in aid of the republic. The arms of Lewis, however, still continued to be successful, and the peace concluded at Nimeguen, in 1678, was much to the honour of France. Franche-Comté was assured as a part of her dominions, and Spain allowed her right by conquest to a great proportion of the Netherlands.

10. Notwithstanding the peace, Lewis, with the most culpable insincerity, seized Strasburg, and secretly took part with the Hungarians and Turks in their attack on the Imperial dominions. Vienna must have fallen into the hands of the Turks, had it not been seasonably relieved by the victorious arms of John Sobieski King of Poland, 1683.

11. One of the weakest and most impolitic measures of Lewis XIV. was the revocation of

the edict of Nantes, granted by Henry IV. for the toleration of the Protestants. While their worship was suppressed, their churches demolished, and their ministers banished, the Protestant laity were forbidden, under the most rigorous penalties, to quit the kingdom, 1685. France, however, by this measure lost above 500,000 of her most industrious and useful subjects; and the name of Lewis XIV. was execrated over a great part of Europe. — It was not long after this time that a similar excess of intolerant bigotry precipitated James II. from the throne of Britain, and forced him to seek an asylum from the Monarch of France.

12. William Prince of Orange, the inveterate enemy of Lewis, brought about the league of Augsburg, 1686; and the war was renewed with France by Germany, Spain, England, and Holland. The French arms were still successful. Luxemburg defeated William in the battles of Steenkirk and Nerwinden; Noailles was victorious in Spain; and an army of 100,000 French ravaged the Palatinate, and took many of the most important towns on the Rhine. This was the crisis of the glory

of Lewis, whose fortunes were to sustain the most mortifying reverse.

13. Those various and most extensive military enterprises, however flattering to the pride of the Monarch, had been attended with enormous expense, and no solid advantage to the nation. The finances had fallen into disorder after the death of Colbert: a peace was absolutely necessary; and by the treaty of Ryswick, concluded in 1697, Lewis restored to Spain all the conquests made in the two last wars, several towns to the Emperor, the duchy of Lorraine to its Duke, and acknowledged the right of William to the crown of England.

14. The succession to the kingdom of Spain, on the expected death of Charles II. without issue, was now the object of political intrigue. The Emperor and the King of France had the only natural right of succession; but William III. of England, from the dread of such an increase of power to either, proposed a treaty of partition of the Spanish dominions, at home and abroad, between the Elector of Bavaria, the Dauphin, and the Emperor's second son. Charles II. chose

rather to make his own destination, and appointed by will that the Duke of Anjou, second son of the Dauphin, should inherit Spain; on whose death without issue, it should devolve on the Archduke Charles, youngest son of the Emperor.

15. On the death of Charles, the Duke of Anjou succeeded to the throne of Spain, in virtue of this settlement. The Emperor, the King of England, and the Dutch, proposed to separate from his crown the Spanish dominions in Italy. In this enterprise Prince Eugene, son of the Count de Soissons, commanded the Imperial troops, an illustrious renegado from France, of great prowess and military skill.

16. James II. of England died in 1701 at St. Germain's, and Lewis gave mortal offence to that government by acknowledging the title of his son. On the death of King William in the year following, war was declared by England, Holland, and the Empire, against France and Spain. Lewis XIV. was now in the decline of life. He had lost the ablest of his ministers and his greatest generals. The finances of the kingdom were exhausted.

The armies of his enemies were commanded by Eugene and the Duke of Marlborough, the ablest generals of the age, and supported by the treasures of the united powers. Savoy and Portugal joined this formidable confederacy, to overwhelm both branches of the house of Bourbon, and place the Emperor's son on the throne of Spain.

17. Marlborough took Venlo, Ruremonde, and Liege, and, together with Eugene, defeated Tallard and Marsin, with the Elector of Bavaria, in the signal battle of Blenheim, 1740. England and Holland attacked Spain by sea and land. Catalonia and Valencia were subdued in six weeks; and Gibraltar, taken by the English, has ever since remained with them. In the battle of Ramilies, Marlborough defeated Villeroy, and left 20,000 dead on the field. The contest, at first doubtful in Italy, ended alike disastrously for the house of Bourbon. The Archduke Charles was in the meantime proclaimed King at Madrid; and Philip V. had serious thoughts of abandoning Spain, and establishing his dominion in America. But the successes of the Duke of Berwick, natural son of

James II., recovered for a while his desponding spirit, and even prompted his grandfather Lewis to avenge himself on England, by aiding the bold but desperate enterprise of establishing the Pretender James on the throne of Britain.

18. But France and Spain were daily losing ground. The Pope had acknowledged the title of the Archduke Charles; the English seized the Mediterranean islands; and Lewis, fallen from all his proud pretensions, humbly entreated a peace, which was refused, unless on the condition of his dethroning his grandson with his own arms. He maintained for a while this unequal contest, and was at length forced to .propose terms equally humiliating; the cession of all his conquests in the Netherlands and on the Rhine; the acknowledgement of the Archduke's title to the crown of Spain; and a promise to give no aid to his grandson; but these were refused, and the inhuman condition still insisted on, that he should himself assist in dethroning his grandson. A last exertion was made in Spain under the Duke of Vendôme, at the head of a prodigious army;

and the victory obtained by the French at Villa-vitiosa restored Philip V. to the throne of Spain. His competitor, the Archduke, soon after became Emperor, on the death of his elder brother.

19. The intrigues of the cabinet of Queen Anne, and the coming in of a Tory ministry, changed the politics of Europe. It was resolved to make peace with France and Spain, and the treaty was concluded at Utrecht, 1713. — It was stipulated that Philip King of Spain should renounce all eventual right to the crown of France, as his brother should to the crown of Spain; the Dutch obtained an extension of frontier; the Emperor a great part of Spanish Flanders; the English gained from Spain, Gibraltar and Minorca, and from France, Acadia, Newfoundland, and Hudson's Bay; with one term most humbling to the latter, the demolition of the harbour of Dunkirk. In the following year a peace was concluded at Rastadt between France and the Empire.

20. The conclusion of this peace, after an honourable war, was the most memorable

event in the reign of Queen Anne, if we except the Union of the two kingdoms of England and Scotland, 1706, which was brought about by the negociation of commissioners mutually chosen, to secure the rights of either kingdom in the best manner for their mutual benefit. It was stipulated that they should be represented by one parliament, (Sect. LIX. § 8.) but that each kingdom should retain its own laws and its established religion, and that they should have the same privileges with respect to commerce. The succession to the crown was limited to the house of Hanover. Queen Anne died 30th July, 1714, and Lewis XIV. on 1st September, 1715, in the 78th year of his age; a prince of great vigour of mind, of good talents, though unimproved by education, of dignified yet amiable manners, and whose greatest fault was his inordinate ambition, to which he sacrificed the real interests of his people. It was his highest honour, that he discerned and recompensed every species of merit; and France was in his time equally illustrious by the great military talents of her generals, and

by the splendour of literature and the arts and sciences.

LXV.

OF THE CONSTITUTION OF FRANCE UNDER THE MONARCHY.

1. It is necessary, for understanding the history of France, that we should have some acquaintance with its former monarchical constitution; and we shall very briefly trace the progress of its government under the different races of its Sovereigns. The regal prerogative was, under the Merovingian princes, extremely limited. (See Sect. II. III.) The general assembly of the nation had the right of electing the Sovereign, and the power of legislation. Under the Carlovingian race, the authority acquired by Pepin and Charlemagne sunk to nothing in the hands of their weak posterity; and though the crown had ceased to be elective, the regal dignity was

a mere shadow. The power of the state had passed into the hands of a turbulent aristocracy, ever at variance among themselves, and uniting only to abase the crown and oppress the people.

2. Under the third Capetian race, the crown acquired more weight, and many of the Sovereigns exerted a proper spirit in restraining the power and punishing the lawless outrages of the nobles. It was to balance the weight of the aristocracy that Philip the Fair introduced the third estate to the national assemblies, which for above four centuries had consisted only of the nobles and clergy. The chief power of the state began now to shift to the scale of the monarch. The national assembly interfered rather to ratify than to decree; and in the fifteenth century the right of legislation was understood to reside wholly in the crown. The right of taxation seemed to follow of course; and the assemblies or states-general were now rarely convened, and from the reign of Louis XIII. entirely laid aside.

3. But another power gradually arose in the state, which in some measure supplied their function in limiting the royal prerogative. The parliaments were originally nothing more than the chief courts of justice in the territory where they were established. The Parliament of Paris had naturally a higher respect and dignity than those of the provinces, and, acquiring a right of appeal from their decrees, was considered as the paramount jurisdiction, and the depository of the laws of the kingdom. The Sovereigns of France, on first assuming the powers of legislation and taxation, produced their edicts to be registered in that court, and frequently consulted with its members on momentous affairs of state, as in questions of peace, war, or alliance. Thus the nation began to regard the parliament of Paris as a body which shared the powers of government with the Monarch: and, in the latter reigns, the parliament availed itself of that general opinion, and made a bold stand in opposing any arbitrary stretches of the King's authority, by refusing to verify and register his edicts.

4. But as this power of the parliament was in reality an usurpation, it was constantly a subject of dispute. The members of this court were in no sense the representatives of the people, or vested with any portion of the constitutional authority of the national assemblies. They were in the King's nomination, removable by him at pleasure, and even subject to entire annihilation as a body at his command. Nay, without so violent a remedy, the Sovereign could at any time frustrate their opposition to his will, by appearing personally in the hall of parliament, and commanding his edict to be registered.

5. Yet even a power thus easily defeasible had its advantages to the state, and operated as a very considerable restraint on the royal authority. Considering itself as the guardian of the public liberty, it remonstrated against all arbitrary encroachments of the Crown, and by giving alarm to the nation, furnished an opposition sufficiently powerful to obtain its ends. The provincial parliaments, although they likewise registered the royal edicts, never

assumed any similar authority. They were no more than the chief courts of civil judicature.

6. The King of France was therefore to be considered as an absolute monarch, but whose authority was in some degree limited by the consuetudinary regulations of the state, and could not easily become entirely despotic and tyrannical. The crown was hereditary, but could not descend to a female, nor to a natural son. The royal revenue was partly fixed and partly arbitrary. The former comprehended the royal domains, the duties on wines and salt, the land-tax, capitation-tax, and gift of the clergy; the latter arose from all other taxes which the monarch thought fit to impose, and from the sale of offices. Most of these duties were leased out to the farmers-general.

7. The Gallican church, though Catholic, and acknowledging the spiritual authority of the Pope, had greatly abridged his ancient prerogatives within the kingdom. The assembly of the church, in 1682, declared, that no temporal Sovereign could be deposed by the Pope, or subjects absolved from their alle-

giance: it decreed the subjection of the Pope to the councils of the church, and denied his infallibility when in opposition to the canons of those councils. The Pope had no power to levy money in France without the royal licence. In short, the ecclesiastical authority was in all respects subordinate to the civil.

LXVI.

OF PETER THE GREAT, CZAR OF MUSCOVY, AND CHARLES XII. KING OF SWEDEN.

1. Two most illustrious characters adorned the north of Europe in the latter part of the age of Lewis XIV., Peter the Great of Muscovy, and Charles XII. of Sweden.

Russia is said to have received the light of Christianity in the tenth century, but its history is utterly unknown till the middle of the fifteenth. At that period John Basilowitz redeemed the empire from its subjection to the Tartars, and extended its limits. His

successors maintained a considerable splendour as Sovereigns; but their dominions were uncultivated, and their subjects barbarians. Alexis Michaelowitz, father of Peter the Great, was the first who published a code of laws. It was not till the end of the sixteenth century that Siberia was added to the empire, which till then was bounded by the limits of Europe.

2. Peter, the youngest son of the Emperor Alexis, became master of the empire in 1689, by setting aside a weak elder brother, and banishing a factious sister, who had seized the government. Utterly uneducated, his youth had been spent in debauchery; but his new situation immediately displayed his talents, and gave birth to the wisest plans for the improvement of a barbarous people. The army and navy demanded his first attention. He began by breaking the turbulent militia of the Strelitzes, and by degrees formed a regular army of 12,000 men, on the strictest model of discipline. He employed some Dutchmen to build a small fleet, and made the first experiment of his arms in taking Azof from the Turks, 1696.

3. Having gained the little instruction he possessed from foreigners, Peter resolved to travel in search of knowledge. Appointing Le Fort, an able Genevese, his ambassador, he travelled as a private person in his suite through Germany to Holland, and studied the art of ship-building, by working in the docks with his own hands. Thence he passed to England, and in a similar manner acquired the knowledge of every art fitted for the improvement of his kingdom. The relative sciences were cultivated with the same ardour and success; and in sixteen months he returned to Moscow to reduce those important acquirements into practice.

4. Regiments were raised and trained to exercise on the German model; the finances arranged and systematised; the church reformed by new canons and regulations; the patriarchate abolished; and a much abused civil and criminal jurisdiction taken from the clergy. It was necessary to carry this reform even to the abolition of the national dress, and the suppression of ancient usages and habits of life; innovations reluctantly submitted to, but enforced by absolute power.

5. While this great genius was thus employed in new-modelling and polishing a barbarous empire, a competitor arose to dispute with him the sovereignty of the North, and divide the admiration of Europe. Charles XII. succeeded to the throne of Sweden 1695, at fifteen years of age; a prince whose singular heroism of character and extraordinary achievements have ranked him with the greatest conquerors of antiquity. The situation of his kingdom speedily brought his genius into display. Russia, Poland, and Denmark, joined in a league to seize and share his dominions. The attack was begun by the Danes on Holstein, while the King of Poland invaded Livonia, and the Czar, Ingria. Charles immediately landed an army on Zealand, at the gates of Copenhagen; and in six weeks forced the Dane to purchase the safety of his capital and kingdom, by laying down his arms, and making full indemnity to the Duke of Holstein. The Swedish Monarch now hastened into Ingria; and at the battle of Narva defeated 60,000 of the Russians, and took 30,000 prisoners. Such was the first campaign of Charles XII., then a boy of seventeen.

6. Poland was destined to receive a yet more humiliating chastisement. Charles reduced Courland and Lithuania, penetrated into the heart of the kingdom, and subdued the capitals of Warsaw and Cracow. He then assembled the states, declared King Augustus deposed, and signified his pleasure that Stanislaus, his own dependent, should be elected Sovereign of Poland. The factions of the kingdom aided this revolution, and the will of Charles was complied with, The deposed King retired to his electoral dominions of Saxony.

7. A negotiation begun with the Czar was abruptly terminated by Charles, who declared he would only negotiate at Moscow; and entering the Russian dominions with 45,000 men, he was in the way of making good his threat, when he was induced, by a treacherous promise of aid from the Cossacks, to march through the Ukraine in the dead of winter. His army was wasted by fatigue and famine, when he was encountered by the Czar at Pultowa; and the fate of Russia, Sweden, and Poland, hung upon that battle. Charles was entirely defeated; 9000 Swedes fell in the

field, and 14,000 were taken prisoners, 1709. Augustus was restored to the throne of Poland, and the Czar took possession of Finland and Livonia.

8. With the wreck of his army, reduced to 1800 men, Charles retreated into the Turkish dominions, and formed a camp near Bender. He endeavoured to prevail with the Grand Seignior to arm against the Czar, and succeeded after a long negotiation. Two hundred thousand Turks took the field; and the Czar's army, infinitely inferior in number, was surrounded, and, after ineffectual resistance, forced to capitulate to the Grand Vizier. — The news of this capitulation was death to all the hopes of Charles; and his subsequent conduct seems the result of phrenzy. The Grand Seignior having intimated his desire that the Swedes should quit his territories, Charles fortified his camp, and declared he would defend it to the last extremity. After every means ineffectually tried to make him alter this resolution, he was attacked by the Turkish army, and taken fighting sword in hand amidst a massacre of his troops.

9. The Czar and the King of Denmark were in the mean time tearing Sweden to pieces. Charles returned in disguise with two of his officers to his own dominions, and immediately conceived the design of wresting Norway from Denmark. Failing in the outset of this enterprise, he was persuaded by Gortz, his prime minister, to engage in another, the dethroning of George II., seising a part of his continental dominions, and placing the Pretender James on the throne of England. This project was concerted between Gortz and Alberoni, prime minister of Philip V. The Czar joined in the scheme, and made peace with Sweden; but an unforeseen event broke all their measures. In besieging the Norwegian fortress of Fredreickshall, Charles XII. was killed by a cannon-ball, 11th December, 1718.

10. Sweden gained by the death of Charles a reformation of her government, and a salutary limitation of the arbitrary power of the Sovereign. His sister Ulrica succeeded to the throne, and raised to it her husband, Frederick Landgrave of Hesse-Cassel. The

States made peace with all the hostile powers. The Czar was now engaged in a war with Persia, in the view of obtaining the command and commerce of the Caspian. This object he accomplished, and gained, by cession from the Sophi, three provinces of the Persian empire.

11. Peter the Great died 28th January, 1725, and was succeeded by the Czarina Catherine, formerly a Livonian captive, but who possessed merit equal to her elevated situation. His only son, Alexis Petrowitz, had been condemned to lose his life for treason; and the mode of his death, which immediately followed his condemnation, is at this moment unknown. Russia owes to Peter the Great all those beneficial improvements which have raised her, within the period of a century, from barbarism and obscurity, to the highest rank among the powers of Europe.

LXVII.

A VIEW OF THE PROGRESS OF SCIENCE AND LITERATURE IN EUROPE:

FROM THE END OF THE FIFTEENTH TO THE END OF THE SEVENTEENTH CENTURY.

1. We have seen how much literature and the sciences were indebted to the art of printing for their advancement and dissemination towards the end of the fifteenth century. (Sect. XXXIV. § 12.) From that period classical learning, criticism, poetry, and history, made a rapid progress in most of the kingdoms of Europe. Philosophy did not keep pace. The dogmas of Aristotle had possession of the schools down to the seventeenth century, and had engrafted themselves even on the doctrines of theology. It required a superior genius to dissipate this mist of error, and break those fetters on all advancement

in useful science; and such was the great Bacon, Lord Verulam, the most profound philosopher, and perhaps the most universal genius that any age has produced. We find in his works an estimate of the actual attainments in all the sciences, a catalogue of the desiderata in each department, and a detail of the methods best suited to prosecute improvement and new disoveries. In fine, we owe to Bacon the sure method of advancing in knowledge by experiment and the observation of nature, instead of system and conjecture.

2. The philosophy of Bacon produced its effect only by slow degrees. Gassendi, though he exposed the doctrines of Aristotle, was still a theorist, and attempted to revive the atomic system of Epicurus. Des Cartes followed in the same track, and reared a whimsical theory of the universe, produced, as he supposed, by the fortuitous combination of atoms, moving in vortices through the immensity of space; a theory recommended by the ingenuity with which it was supported, and its apparently solving many of the phenomena of nature. Copernicus had, a century

before, published his system of the planets, which, though condemned by the church, was received by Des Cartes and the best philosophers.

3. Galileo, in 1609, constructed telescopes, (Sect XXXIV. § 5.) and discovered the satellites of the larger planets, and their motions, for which he was rewarded by imprisonment, as a supporter of the Copernican heresy. Kepler investigated the laws which regulate the motions of the planets, and the analogy between their distances from the sun and perodical revolutions. The discoveries in astronomy led to improvements in navigation, and a great advancement of geometry in all its branches. Napier, in 1614, abridged calculation by the invention of logarithms. The Torricellian experiments determined the weight of the atmosphere. In 1616, Harvey discovered the circulation of the blood.

4. The Royal Society, which originated from private meetings of the English philosophers, was incorporated by Charles II. in 1662, and has greatly contributed to the advancement of the sciences and useful arts. The Royal

Academy of Sciences was instituted in 1666 by Lewis XIV.; and similar institutions were founded in most of the countries of Europe; among which there is a communication of science, and a laudable emulation excited by the publication of their transactions.

5. In the end of the seventeenth century arose the immortal Newton, who, by exhausting the most important discoveries of the laws of nature, has rendered it impossible for posterity to eclipse his fame. He had discovered, before the age of twenty-four, the theory of universal gravitation, a principle which solves the chief phenomena of nature, and connects and regulates the whole machine of the universe. His theory of light and colours is the foundation of the whole science of optics, and his *Principia* the basis and elements of all philosophy.

6. Locke, the contemporary of Newton, successfully applied Lord Bacon's mode of investigation to the study of the human mind; and, utterly rejecting the systems of the old philosophers, examined the soul by attending to its operations. From the simple fact that all know-

ledge is progressive, and that an infant gains its ideas gradually through the medium of its senses, he drew the general conclusion, that there are no innate ideas in the mind, but all are either immediate perceptions conveyed by the senses, or acts of the mind reflecting on those perceptions; a conclusion which has been obstinately controverted, chiefly by drawing from it false consequences, but which has never yet been shaken.

7. The progress of literature in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries was equally remarkable with that of science and philosophy. Trissino was the first of the moderns who composed an epic poem in the language of his country, *L'Italia liberata da Goti*, and the first Italian who wrote a regular tragedy, *Sophonisba*. Of much superior merit to the epic poem of Trissino is the *Lusiad* of the Portuguese Camoens, a work abounding in passages of high poetic beauty, and displaying a sublime imagination. In the end of the sixteenth century Spain produced the *Araucana* of Ercilla, an epic poem of great inequality of merit, but frequently exhibiting novelty of figures and bold concep-

tions. The subject is a revolt of the Peruvians against the Spaniards.

8. But the principal epic poems of this age are the *Orlando Furioso* of Ariosto, and the *Gierusalemme Liberata* of Tasso; the former a work most irregular in its plan, most unconnected and desultory in its conduct, most extravagant and absurd in the characters of its persons, but displaying alternately every excellence of poetry in the various departments of the descriptive, comic, satiric, moral, and sublime. The *Gierusalemme* of Tasso, of a regular plan and perfect polish in its structure, has been frequently brought in comparison with the equally high-finished poem of the *Æneid;* nor does the Italian suffer much in the comparison. There is a romantic charm both in the incidents and characters of his poem, which must ever render it a favourite with all readers of genuine taste.

9. From the time of Tasso, the genius of epic poetry lay dormant for a century, till the days of Milton; for the *Fairy Queen* of Spenser is rather a romantic allegory than an epic poem. The *Paradise Lost,* compared with the great

poems of antiquity, is more irregular and less perfect as a whole than the *Iliad*, *Æneid*, and *Odyssey*, but exhibits in detached parts more of the sublime and beautiful than them all. It has been well remarked, that the inequality of this poem arises in a great measure from the nature of the subject, of which some parts are the most lofty that can enter into the human mind, and others could only have been supported by a laborious elegance and polish, which the author's genius could not stoop to bestow.

10. Lyric poetry was cultivated in the sixteenth century, in Italy, France, and England, but with no high success. The lesser poems of Ariosto and Tasso have no tincture of the genius displayed in their greater works. Chiabrera is perhaps the only lyric poet of this period that merits distinction. In France, Ronsard and Bellay imitated Petrarch with all his false wit, but without his passion. Marot, however, in the *naiveté* and easy vein of his humour, is justly accounted the master of La Fontaine. In the beginning of the seventeenth century, French versification received a considerable

polish from the compositions of Racan, and yet more from those of Malherbe: and towards the end of that century lyric poetry was cultivated with high success by La Farre, Chapelle and Bachaumont, Chaulieu, and Gresset.

11. The English lyric poetry of the sixteenth century, of Spenser, Surrey, Harrington, Sydney, and even Shakspeare, is harsh and inharmonious; nor is much improvement discernible till the time of Cowley and Waller. The merit of Cowley as a lyric poet was too highly prized in his own age, and is underrated in ours. With all his false wit, pedantry, and obscurity, he is often both sublime and pathetic in no moderate degree. The lyric ode in the third book of the *Davideis* has few parallels in the English language. As a prose writer, Cowley shines in that age with superior excellence. Waller is more polished and harmonious than any of the preceding or contemporary poets, but his wit is quaint, and his elevation too frequently bombast.

12. Dryden, in the end of the seventeenth century, carried lyric poetry to its highest per-

fection. His Ode on St. Cecilia's Day surpasses all the lyric compositions both of antiquity and modern times. He shines conspicuously as a satyrist, possessing the keen and caustic wit, without the indelicacy of Juvenal or Horace. His versions from Chaucer and Bocaccio are easy and spirited, and display a happy talent for poetical narrative. His numerous dramatic pieces, though exhibiting both invention and poetic beauty, are deficient in true passion, and in the just delineation of character.

13. It was not till the end of the sixteenth century that the drama in Europe began to furnish a rational entertainment. At that period, Lope de Vega and Calderona in Spain, and Shakspeare in England, produced those pieces, which, though irregular and stained with blemishes, are at this day the admiration of their countrymen. The Spanish plays of that age have been a rich mine for succeeding dramatists, both among the French, Italians, and English. The merits of Shakspeare are familiar to every person of taste. Ignorant of the rules of his art, he is the pure child of nature, and thus exhibits often her caprices and

absurdities; but these are redeemed by the most transcendant beauties. The old English drama is, with all its irregularities, incomparably superior to the modern, both in touching the passions and in displaying just views of human character. The persons are more discriminated by various and appropriate features, and the nicer shades of nearly resembling characters are thus more distinctly marked. The mixture of the comic and tragic in the same plot, though condemned by modern practice, is a great source of pleasure in the pieces of Shakspeare and his contemporaries; nor is there any thing in such a mixture, but what is consonant to nature. To a person of true taste, it will be found often to heighten, by contrast, the capital emotion to be excited.

14. The compositions for the French stage, in the end of the seventeenth century, are strictly conformable to dramatic rules, and many of those pieces are models of a correct and polished taste. The morality of the French drama of that age and the next is in general purer than ours; but their pieces are deficient

in the nice delineation of character, and in the power of exciting the passions. Corneille and Racine brought the French tragedy to its highest elevation, as Moliere the comedy. Corneille has more grandeur and sublimity than his rival, who excels him in the tender and pathetic. The comedies of Moliere, highly amusing in the present time, were more particularly valuable in the age when they were written, and had a sensible effect in correcting its prevailing follies; the pedantry of the ladies, the ignorance and quackery of the physicians, and the pride and arrogance of the French noblesse. The last of the eminent dramatists who adorned France in the seventeenth century, was the elder Crebillon, who drew many sublime and impassioned scenes from the source of terror; and who, in all his works, was as eminently the friend of virtue as his worthless son has been the pander of vice.

15. The most eminent historians of the sixteenth century are, De Thou, Davila, and Machiavel. De Thou has written the annals of his own time, from 1545 to 1607, with great

judgment, and in most elegant Latin composition. The history of Davila, the annals of the Civil Wars of France in the time of the Leagues, though the work of a partisan, is composed with no common degree of candour and impartiality. Machiavel wrote, in the beginning of the sixteenth century, the History of Florence, of which the style is classical and the matter well arranged, but too much interrupted by reflections and political discussions. In the seventeenth century Bentivoglio composed his History of the Civil Wars of Flanders, with the most accurate knowledge of his subject, perspicuity of narrative, and eloquence of style. Among the English historians in the beginning of that period Rawleigh is the most distinguished, though his History of the World is, in point of style, inferior to the judgment shewn in the arrangement of the matter. In the latter part of the seventeenth century, Clarendon's History of the Rebellion is a work of the highest merit, whether we consider the authenticity of its facts, the deep knowledge of human nature displayed in the delineation of

the characters, or the grave and manly eloquence of the style. If, in the opposition of political opinions, he has been deemed too partial in the defence of his Sovereign, even his adversaries have admitted his perfect integrity, and entire conviction of the rectitude of the cause which he supports.

THE END.

THE TANJORE MAHARAJA SERFOJI'S SARASWATI MAHAL

THE TANJORE MAHARAJA SERFOJI'S SARASWATI MAHAL

A CHRONOLOGICAL TABLE.

EXPLANATION OF THE TABLE OF CHRONOLOGY.

THE Plan of the following CHRONOLOGICAL TABLE, though extremely simple, requires, as being a new one, a short Explanation. In order to give a distinct View of the succession of Princes in the chief Empires or Kingdoms, without employing for that purpose different columns, which distracts too much the attention, and occupies unnecessarily a great deal of space, the Series of the Sovereigns of different Nations is distinguished in this Table by their being printed in different Typographical Characters. Thus, the Series of the Kings and Emperors of Rome is printed in a larger Roman Type than the rest of the table; — as,

14. Tiberius Emperor of Rome.

THE Series of the Popes is distinguishable by this character ¶ prefixed to each name; — as,

1513. ¶ Pope Leo X.

THAT of the Sultans of the Ottoman Empire, by a ☾ prefixed to the name.

THE names of the Emperors of Germany are printed in Roman Capitals; — as,

887. ARNOLD, Emperor of Germany.

The Kings of England are marked by the Black Saxon Type ;—as,

1066. **William** (the Conqueror) King of England.

The Kings of Scotland, by a larger Capital beginning the word ; — as,

1390. ROBERT III. King of Scotland.

And the Kings of France are distinguished by the Italic Type ; — as,

1498. *Lewis XII. King of France.*

By this method the Succession of the Sovereigns in the different Kingdoms is immediately distinguishable to the eye, as well as the Duration of their Reigns, while the intervening space is filled by the Remarkable Events that occurred in that period all over the World ; and thus the connection of General History is preserved unbroken. A marginal Column is added of Illustrious Persons, which, being appropriated chiefly to men of Learning and Genius, presents to the Reader a View of the Progress of Science, and affords an easy means of forming an estimate of the Literary Character of any particular Age in the History of Mankind.

A
CHRONOLOGICAL TABLE.

Yrs. before Christ.		Illustrious Persons.
4004	THE Creation of the World, according to the Hebrew text of the Scriptures. According to the version of the Septuagint, 5872. According to the Samaritan version, 4700.	
2348	The universal Deluge.	
2247	The building of Babel. — The Dispersion of Mankind, and the Confusion of Languages.	
2127	Ninus King of Assyria began to reign.	
2217	Nimrod supposed to have built Babylon, and founded the Babylonish Monarchy; and Assur to have built Nineveh, and founded the Monarchy of Assyria.	
2188	Menes (in Scripture Misraim) founds the Monarchy of Egypt.	
2084	The Shepherd Kings conquer Egypt.	
2075	Semiramis Queen of Assyria.	
2040	Mœris King of Thebes and Memphis in Egypt.	
1996	The birth of Abram.	
1912	Chedarlaomer subdues several of the Kings in Judea.	
1897	Sodom and Gomorrah destroyed by fire from Heaven.	
1895	Isaac born.	
1856	Inachus founds the kingdom of Argos in Greece.	
1836	Jacob and Esau born.	
1825	The Shepherd Kings abandon Egypt.	
1823	Death of Abraham.	
1796	The Deluge of Ogyges in Attica.	
1722	Sesostris or Rameses King of Egypt.	
1635	Joseph dies in Egypt.	
1582	The Chronology of the Arundelian Marbles begins with this year.	1588 Atlas, *Astronom.*
1571	Moses born in Egypt.	
1556	Cecrops founds the Kingdom of Athens.	
1546	Scamander founds the Kingdom of Troy.	
1532	Judgment of the Areopagus between Mars and Neptune, two Princes of Thessaly.	

Yrs. before Christ.		*Illustrious Persons.*
1529	The Deluge of Deucalion in Thessaly.	
1522	The Council of the Amphyctions instituted.	
1520	Corinth built.	
1519	Cadmus builds Thebes, and introduces letters into Greece.	
1513	The supposed æra of the History of Job.	
1511	Danaus came from Egypt into Greece.	
1506	Erectheus or Erecthonius institutes the Panathenæan Games.	
1491	Moses brings the Israelites out of Egypt.	
1453	The first Olympic Games celebrated in Greece.	
1452	The Pentateuch, or five books of Moses, written.	1459 Hermes Triso, *fl.*
1451	The Israelites led into the land of Canaan by Joshua.	Horus Apollo, *fl.*
1438	Pandion King of Athens.	1430 Bacchus, ob.
1415	The Book of Joshua supposed to be written by Phinchas the High Priest.	
1406	Minos reigns in Crete, and gives laws to the Cretans.	
1376	Sethos reigns in Egypt.	
1322	Belus reigns in Babylon.	
1267	Ninus reigns in Assyria.	1284 Orpheus, Linus, *fl.*
1266	Œdipus marries his Mother Jocasta, and reigns in Thebes.	
1263	The Argonautic Expedition. — (According to the Newtonian chronology 937.)	Jason, Hercules, *fl.*
1257	Theseus unites the Cities of Attica.	
1255	The Israelites delivered by Deborah and Barak.	
1252	Tyre, the capital of Phœnicia, built by the Sidonians.	1253 Musœus, *Poet, fl.*
1239	Latinus begins to reign in Italy.	
1225	Siege of Thebes. — War between Etyocles and Polynices.	
——	Eurysthenes and Procles Kings of Lacedæmon.	
1215	Second War of Thebes, or War of the Epigonoi.	
1207	Gideon Judge of Israel for forty years.	1213 Nestor, *fl.*
1202	Teucer built Salamis.	
1193	The Trojan War begins.	Menelaus, Ulysses, *fl.*
1184	Troy taken and burnt by the Greeks.—(According to the Arundelian Marbles 1209.)	Hector, Achilles, *fl.*
1182	Æneas lands in Italy.	1180 Dares Phrygius, *Hist. fl.*
1155	Samson born.	
1104	Return of the Heraclidæ into Peloponnesus.	Dictys Cret. *fl.*
1099	Samuel delivers Israel.	
——	Jephthah Judge of Israel.	
1079	Saul King of Israel.	
1070	Medon first Archon of Athens.	

Yrs. before Christ.		Illustrious Persons.
1069	Codrus King of Athens devotes himself for his country.	1040 Sanconiathon, *fl.*
1055	David King of Israel.	
1004	Dedication of Solomon's Temple.	
980	Rehoboam King of Israel.	907 Homer, Hesiod, *fl.*
971	Sesac or Sesostris King of Egypt.	
923	Ahab and Jezabel reign over Israel.	
914	Omri King of Israel.	
889	Athalia, wife of Jehoram, usurps the throne of Judah.	896 Elijah, *Prophet, fl.*
886	Homer's Poems brought from Asia into Greece.	
884	Lycurgus reforms the Republic of Lacedæmon.	873 Lycurgus, *ob.*
869	The City of Carthage built by Dido.	
825	Jeroboam restores the glory of Israel in a reign of forty-one years.	
820	Nineveh taken by Arbaces and Belesis, which finishes that kingdom.	Elisha, *Prophet, ob.*
806	Jonah preaches repentance to Nineveh.	
776	The First Olympiad begins in this year.	
769	Syracuse built by Archius of Corinth.	768 Isaiah, *Prophet.*
767	Sardanapalus King of Assyria.	Joel, *Prophet.*
760	The Ephori, popular Magistrates, instituted at Lacedæmon.	Amos, *Prophet.* Micah, *Prophet.*
757	Hylattes King of Lydia.	Obadiah, *Prophet.*
754	Decennial Archons elected at Athens.	
752	**The Foundation of Rome by Romulus.**	
758	Rape of the Sabines.	
747	The Era of Nabonassar made use of by Ptolemy.	
——	Xth Olympiad.	
738	Candaules King of Lydia.	736 Eumelus, *Poet.*
724	Hezekiah tenth King of Judah.	Agathon, *Poet, fl.*
721	Salmanazar takes Samaria, and carries the ten tribes into captivity, which puts an end to the Israelitish kingdom.	
718	Gyges King of Lydia.	
715	**Numa Pompilius,** second King of Rome.	
711	Sennacherib, King of Assyria, invades Judæ a	
710	Dejoces King of Media.	
708	Habakkuk prophesied.	
703	Corcyra founded by the Corinthians.	
700	XXth Olympiad.	
696	Manasseh sixteenth King of Judah.	
688	Judith kills Holofernes the Assyrian General.	
684	Annual Archons elected at Athens.	Archilochus, *Poet.*
681	Esarhaddon unites the kingdoms of Babylon and Assyria.	Tyrtæus, *Poet.*

Yrs. before Christ.		*Illustrious Persons.*
672	Tullus Hostilius, third King of Rome.	
670	Psammeticus King of Egypt.	Terpander, *fl.*
667	The combat between the Horatii and Curatii.	Alcman, *fl.*
660	XXXth Olympiad.	
658	Byzantium founded by Pausanias King of Sparta.	Stesichorus, *fl.*
——	Phraortes King of Media.	
640	Ancus Martius, fourth King of Rome.	
637	The forty years of Ezekiel began.	
636	Periander Tyrant of Corinth.	
——	Nabopolassar, father of Nebuchadnezzar, begins to reign at Babylon.	
624	Draco, Archon and Legislator of Athens.	Arion, *Musician, fl.*
620	XLth Olympiad.	612 Pittachus of Mitylene.
616	Tarquinius Priscus, fifth King of Rome.	—Bias of Pirene.
606	Nebuchadnezzar takes Jerusalem, and carries the Jews into captivity.	Alcæus, *Poet, fl.* Sappho, *Poetess, fl.*
601	Battle between the Medes and Lydians, who are separated by a great eclipse of the sun, predicted by Thales. (Newton Chron. 585.)	
——	End of the Assyrian Empire. — Nineveh taken by Nebuchadnezzar.	
600	Jeremiah prophesied.	590 Memnermus, *Po. fl.*
599	Birth of Cyrus the Great.	
594	Solon, Archon and Legislator of Athens.	
580	Lth Olympiad.	Jeremiah, *Prophet, ob.*
578	Servius Tullius, sixth King of Rome.	Æsop, *Fab.*
572	Nebuchadnezzar subdues Egypt.	562 Cadmus of Miletus, *Hist. fl.*
571	Phalaris Tyrant of Agrigentum.	
562	Comedies first exhibited at Athens by Thespis.	—Pherecydes of Scyros, *Phil. fl.*
——	Crœsus reigns in Lydia.	558 Solon, *ob.*
551	Confucius, the Chinese Philosopher, born.	
550	Pisistratus Tyrant of Athens.	556 Chilo of Lacedæmon.
548	The ancient Temple of Delphos burnt by the Pisistratidæ.	554 Anacharsis of Scythia.
540	LXth Olympiad.	552 Ibycus, *Poet, fl.*
538	Babylon taken by Cyrus.—End of the Babylonian Empire.	548 Thales, *Phil. ob.*
536	Cyrus ascends the throne of Persia.—He puts an end to the Jewish captivity, which had lasted seventy years.	—Theognis, *Poet, fl.* —Stesichorus, *Poet, fl.* 547 Anaximander, *ob.*
534	Tarquinius Superbus, seventh King of Rome.	—Phocylides, *Poet, fl.*
——	Daniel prophesied.	—Susarion, *Fab. fl.*
529	Death of Cyrus the Great. — Cambysses King of Persia.	546 Orpheus, *fl.* 544 Bion, *Poet, fl.*

Yrs. before Christ.		Illustrious Persons.
529	Death of Pisistratus Tyrant of Athens.	
522	Darius, son of Hystaspes, King of Persia.	
520	The Jews begin to build the second Temple, which is finished in four years.	Thespis, *Com. fl.* Anacreon, *Poet, fl.*
510	The Pisistratidæ expelled from Athens, and the Democracy restored.	Scylax, *Geog.* Diogenes, *Phil. born.*
500	LXXth Olympiad.	
488	Statues erected at Athens to Harmodius and Aristogiton.	519 Zoroaster, *fl.* — Haggai, *Prophet.*
509	The Tarquins expelled from Rome, and the Regal government abolished.	516 Onomacritus, *Po. fl.* Heraclitus, *Phil. fl.*
508	The first alliance between the Romans and Carthaginians.	Ocellus Lucanus, *fl.* Georgias, *Soph. fl.*
504	Sardis taken and burnt by the Athenians.	Epicharmus, *Poet, fl.*
498	The first Dictator created at Rome, (Lartius.)	Anaximenes, *Phil. ob.*
497	Institution of the Saturnalia at Rome.	Pythagoras, *ob.*
493	The port of Piræus built by the Athenians.	
490	The Battle of Marathon, in which Miltiades defeats the Persians.	Theano, *Phil. fl.*
——	The first tribunes of the people created at Rome.	Simonides, *Poet, fl.*
486	Miltiades dies in prison.	
——	Xerxes succeeds his father Darius in the kingdom of Persia.	Corinna, *Poet, fl.*
485	Coriolanus banished from Rome.	
483	Quæstors instituted at Rome.	
——	Aristides banished from Athens by the Ostracism.	
480	The Spartans, under Leonidas, cut to pieces at Thermopylæ.	
——	Naval victory gained by the Greeks over the Persians at Salamis.	
479	Attica laid waste, and Athens burnt, by Mardonius.	Confucius, *Chinese Phil. ob.*
——	Victories over the Persians at Platæa and Mycale.	
——	Xerxes leaves Greece.	
477	300 Fabii killed by the Veientes.	
476	Themistocles rebuilds Athens.	
——	Valerius triumphs over the Veientes and Sabines.	
——	The Roman citizens numbered at 103,000.	
——	A great eruption of Ætna.	
——	Hiero King of Syracuse.	
471	Volero, the Roman Tribune, obtains a law for the election of Magistrates in the comitia held by tribes.	
470	Cimon, son of Miltiades, defeats the Persian army and fleet in one day, at the mouth of the river Eurymedon.	

Yrs. before Christ.		*Illustrious Persons.*
469	Capua founded by the Tuscans.	-
464	Artaxerxes (Longimanus) King of Persia.	Zeno, the elder, *Phil. fl.*
——	Cimon banished by the Ostracism.	
463	Egypt revolts from the Persians.	
462	The Terentian law proposed at Rome.	Esdras, *Prophet.*
460	LXXXth Olympiad.	
456	Cincinnatus Dictator at Rome.	Æschylus, *Poet, ob.*
——	The Ludi Sæculares first instituted at Rome.	Democritus, *Phil. fl.*
455	Commencement of the Seventy Prophetical Weeks of Daniel.	
453	The number of the Tribunes of the people at Rome increased from five to ten.	Aristarchus, *Crit. fl.* Leucippus, *Phil. fl.*
452	The two books of Chronicles supposed to have been written at this time by Ezra.	Cratinus, *Com. fl.*
451	Creation of the Decemviri at Rome and Compilation of the Laws of the Twelve Tables.	Bachylides, *Poet, fl.*
449	Peace between the Greeks and Persians concluded by Cimon, glorious for Greece.	
——	Death of Virginia, and abolition of the Decemvirate.	
445	The Law of Canulcius for the intermarriage of the Patricians and Plebeians at Rome.	444 Herodotus, *Hist. fl.*
——	Military Tribunes created.	
437	The Censorship first instituted at Rome.	
436	Pericles in high power at Athens.	Empedocles, *Phil. fl.*
432	Meton's nineteen years' Cycle of the Moon.	—Parmenides, *Phil. fl.*
431	The Peloponnesian war begins, which lasted twenty-seven years.	435 Pindar, *ob.* 432 Phidias, *Sc. ob.*
430	The history of the Old Testament ends about this time.	Eupolis, *Com. fl.* Aristippus, *Phil. fl.*
——	Great Plague at Athens, eloquently described by Thucydides.	Antisthenes, *Phil. fl.* Agathon, *Poet, fl.*
——	Malachi the last of the Prophets.	Anaxagoras, *Phil. ob.*
428	Death of Pericles.	
423	Darius Nothus King of Persia.	
420	XCth Olympiad.	
418	Disturbances at Rome on account of the Agrarian Law.	415 Meton, *Math. fl.*
414	The Athenians defeated before Syracuse.	
413	Alcibiades, accused at Athens, flies to the Lacedæmonians.	
412	A council of 400 governs Athens.	
405	Lysander defeats the Athenians at Ægos Potamos.	407 Euripides, *ob.*
404	Artaxerxes II. (Mnemon) King of Persia.	406 Sophocles, *ob.*
——	End of the Peloponnesian war.	

Yrs. before Christ.		Illustrious Persons.
403	Lysander takes Athens. — Government of the Thirty Tyrants.	
401	The Younger Cyrus son of Darius Nothus defeated by his brother Artaxerxes, and killed.	Cebes, *fl.*—Euclid, *Phil.* Euclid, Meg. *Phil. fl.*
——	Retreat of the Ten Thousand Greeks.	
——	Persecution and death of Socrates.	
——	Thrasybulus drives out the Thirty Tyrants, and delivers Athens.	
399	A Lectisternium celebrated at Rome for the first time.	
397	The Lake of Alba drained by the Romans.	397 Xeuxes, *Paint. fl.*
396	Syracuse unsuccessfully besieged by the Carthaginians.	Socrates, *ob.*
391	Marcus Furius Camillus Dictator at Rome. — Veii taken.	Thucydides, *Hist. ob.* Philoxenus, *Poet, fl.*
387	Dishonourable peace of Antalcidas between the Spartans and Persians.	398 Aristophanes, *ob.* Ctesias, *Hist. ob.*
385	Rome taken by the Gauls under Brennus.	
382	Phæbidas, the Spartan, seizes the citadel of Thebes.	
380	Pelopidas and Epaminondas deliver Thebes from the Lacedæmonians.	
380	Cth Olympiad.	
371	Battle of Leuctra, in which the Lacedæmonians are defeated by the Thebans under Epaminondas.	378 Lysias, *Or. ob.* Timœus, *Phil. fl.*
364	Pelopidas defeats the Tyrant of Pheræa, but is killed in battle.	Antiphanes, *Com. fl.*
363	Battle of Mantinea, in which Epaminondas is killed.	Pelopidas, *ob.*
362	Curtius leaps into a gulf in the Forum at Rome.	
361	Darius Ochus (or Artaxerxes III.) King of Persia. — (According to Blair, 358.)	Democritus, *Abd. ob.* 361 Hippocrates, *ob.*
358	War of the Allies against Athens.	359 Xenophon, *Hist. ob.*
——	Philip of Macedon takes Amphipolis, Pydna, and Potidea.	Theopompus, *Hist. fl.*
357	Dion overcomes the party of Dionysius at Syracuse.	
356	Alexander the Great born at Pella in Macedonia.	
——	The Temple of Diana at Ephesus burnt by Erostratus.	
——	The Phocian or Sacred War begins in Greece.	
——	Philip conquers the Thracians, Pæonians, and Illyrians.	
350	Darius Ochus subdues Egypt.	
348	Philip of Macedon takes Olynthus.	Plato, *ob.*
——	End of the Sacred War.	
347	Dionysius restored at Syracuse, after an exile of ten years.	

Yrs. before Christ.		Illustrious Persons.
346	Philip admitted a Member of the Amphictyonic Council.	
343	Syracuse taken by Timoleon, and Dionysius the Tyrant finally banished.	
——	The war between the Romans and Samnites, which led to the conquest of all Italy.	
340	CXth Olympiad.	
——	The Carthaginians defeated near Agrigentum.	
——	P. Decius devotes himself to his country.	
338	Battle of Cheronæa gained by Philip over the Athenians and Thebans.	Isocrates, *Or. ob.*
337	Philip chosen Generalissimo of the Greeks.	
336	Philip murdered by Pausanias.	
——	Alexander the Great King of Macedon.	
——	Alexander the Great destroys Thebes.	Parrhasius, *Paint. fl.*
335	Darius III. (Codomanus) King of Persia.	Aristides, *Paint. fl.*
——	Alexander chosen Generalissimo by the States of Greece.	Timanthes, *Paint. fl.*
334	Alexander defeats the Persians on the banks of the Granicus.	Apelles, *Paint. fl.*
333	The Persians defeated by Alexander at Issus.	
332	Alexander conquers Egypt and takes Tyre.	
331	Darius defeated by Alexander at Arbela.	
330	Darius Codomannus killed. End of the Persian empire.	
——	Alexander takes possession of Susa, and sets fire to the palace of Persepolis.	
328	Alexander passes into India, defeats Porus, founds several cities, penetrates to the Ganges.	
——	The voyage of Nearchus from the Indus to the Euphrates.	326 Lisippus, *Sc. fl.* Oschines, *Orat. fl.*
325	Papirius Cursor, Dictator at Rome, triumphs over the Samnites.	Onesicrates, *Hist. fl.* Eudemas, *Math. fl.*
324	Alexander the Great dies at Babylon, at the age of thirty-three.	Diogenes, *Phil. ob.*
321	The Samnites make the Roman army pass under the yoke at Caudium.	322 Demost. *Or. ob.* — Aristotle, *ob.*
320	Ptolemy carries 100,000 Jews captives into Egypt.	Menander, *Com. fl.*
317	Agathocles Tyrant of Syracuse.	Philemon, *Com. fl.*
312	Era of the Seleucidæ.	314 Xenocrates, *Phil. fl.*
311	Cassander, Lysimachus, and Ptolemy, conclude a peace with Antigonus.	Pyrrho, *Phil. ob.*
304	Demetrius besieges Rhodes.	
303	Demetrius restores the Greek cities to their liberty.	300 Dephilus, *Com. fl.*
301	Battle of Ipsus in Phrygia, in which Antigonus is defeated and slain.	— Posdippus, *Com. fl.*

s before Christ.		*Illustrious Persons.*
301	Fabius Maximus and Valerius Corvus Dictators.	
300	Seleucus founds Antioch, Edessa, and Laodicea.	Arcesilas, *Math. fl.*
—	CXXth Olympiad.	
298	Athens taken by Demetrius Poliorcetes.	Euclid, *Math. fl.*
294	Seleucus resigns his wife Stratonice to his son Antiochus.	293 Menander, *Poet, ob.*
286	Law of Hortensius, by which the decrees of the people were allowed the same force as those of the Senate.	288 Praxiteles, *Sc. ob. post.*
285	The astronomical era of Dionysius of Alexandria.	Theophrastus. *fl.*
284	Ptolemy Philadelphus King of Egypt.	284 Demetrius, Phal. *ob.*
283	The Library of Alexandria founded.	Callimachus, *Poet, fl.*
281	Commencement of the Achean league.	282 Theocritus, *Poet, fl.*
280	Pyrrhus invades Italy.	Megasthenes, *Hist. fl.*
—	Antiochus Soter King of Syria.	Lycophron, *Poet, fl.*
277	The translation of the Septuagint made by the order of Ptolemy Philadelphus. — (Playfair, 285.)	Aratus, *Poet, fl.*
—	Antigonus Gonatas reigned in Macedon thirty-six years.	
275	Pyrrhus unsuccessful against the Carthaginians in Sicily.	
274	Pyrrhus, totally defeated by the Romans near Beneventum, evacuates Italy.	272 Polemo, *Phil. ob.*
272	The Samnites finally subdued by the Romans.	270 Epicurus, *Phil. ob.*
266	Silver money is coined at Rome for the first time.	268 Berosus, *Hist. fl.*
265	The citizens of Rome numbered at 292,224.	
264	The first Punic war begins. — The Chronicle of Paros composed.	Zeno, the Younger, *Phil. ob.*
260	Provincial Quæstors instituted at Rome.	Cleanthes, Sto. *Phil. fl.*
—	CXXXth Olympiad.	
—	First naval victory obtained by the Romans under the Consul Duilius.	261 Manetho, *Hist. fl.* 259 Zoilus, *Crit. fl.*
255	Regulus defeated and taken prisoner by the Carthaginians under Xantippus.	Conon, *Astron. fl.*
253	Manasseh chosen High Priest of the Jews.	Aratus of Sicyon, *fl.*
251	Great victory of Metellus over Asdrubal.	247 Jesus son of Sirach.
250	The Romans besiege Lilybœum,—are defeated by Hamilcar.	244 Callimachus, *Po. fl.*
241	End of the first Punic War.	
—	Attalus King of Pergamus succeeds Eumenes.	Liv. Andronicus, *Po. fl.*
240	Comedies are first acted at Rome.	Apollonius, *Math. fl.*
235	The Temple of Janus shut for the first time since the reign of Numa.	
228	Hamilcar killed in Spain.	
225	Great victory of the Romans over the Gauls.	Fabius Pictor, *Hist. fl.*

Yrs. before Christ.		*Illustrious Persons.*
220	CXLth Olympiad.	226 Eratosthenes, *Geo. fl.*
219	Hannibal takes Saguntum.	
218	The second Punic War begins.	225 Chrysippus, *Phil. fl.*
217	Hannibal defeats the Romans under Flaminius.	
——	Fabius Maximus Dictator.	
216	Battle of Canae, in which the Romans are totally defeated by Hannibal.	
212	Philip II. of Macedon defeats the Ætolians.	Archimedes, *Math. ob.*
——	Marcellus takes Syracuse, after a siege of two years.	
211	Capua surrenders to the Romans.	
——	Antiochus the Great conquers Judæa.	
210	Asdrubal vanquished in Spain by the Scipios.	
——	Publius Scipio sent into Spain, takes New Carthage.	
206	Philopœmen Prætor of the Achæans.	
203	The Carthaginians recal Hannibal to Africa.	203 Nævius, *Poet, ob.*
——	Sophonisba poisoned by Massinissa.	
201	Syphax led in triumph to Rome by P. Scipio.	
197	Philip defeated by the Romans at Cynocephale.	
196	The battle of Zama, and end of the second Punic War.	194 Apollonius Rhod. *Po. fl.*
190	The Romans enter Asia, and defeat Antigonus at Magnesia.	185 Philopœmen, *ob.*
183	The elder Cato Censor at Rome.	184 Plautus, *Poet, ob.*
180	CLth Olympiad.	
173	War between the Romans and Perseus King of Macedon.	180 Bion, *Poet, fl.* — Moschus, *Poet, fl.*
172	Antiochus defeats the Generals of Ptolemy in Egypt.	
170	Antiochus Epiphanes takes and plunders Jerusalem.	
169	Terence's comedies performed at Rome.	169 Ennius, *Poet, ob.*
167	Perseus defeated by Paulus Æmilius, and brought prisoner to Rome. End of the kingdom of Macedon.	
166	Judas Maccabeus drives the Syrians out of Judea.	Cæcilius, *Poet, ob.*
164	The Roman citizens numbered at 327,032.	159 Terence, *Poet, ob.*
149	The third Punic War begins.	156 Aristarchus, *Gr. ob.*
147	Metellus defeats the Achæans.	— Hipparchus, *Phil. fl.*
146	Corinth taken by the Consul Mummius.	157 M. Portius Cato, *Orat.* and *Hist.*
——	Carthage taken and destroyed by the Romans.	
140	CLXth Olympiad.	157 Philo Byzant. *fl.*
137	The Romans shamefully defeated by the Numantines.	140 Critolaus, *Phil. ob.* 139 Accius, *Tr. P. ob.*
135	The history of the Apocrypha ends.	131 Pacuvius, *Tr. P. ob.*
——	Antiochus besieges Jerusalem.	— C. Piso, *Hist. fl.*

Yrs. before Christ.		*Illustrious Persons.*
133	Tiberius Gracchus put to death.	128 Carneades, *Phil. ob.*
——	Numantia taken. — Pergamus becomes a Roman province.	124 Polybius, *Hist. ob.*
121	Caius Gracchus killed.	115 Apollodorus, *Gr. ob.*
113	Carbo the Consul drives the Cimbri and Teutones out of Italy.	
111	The Jugurthine War begins.	
108	Marius defeats Jugurtha.	
103	Jugurtha starved to death at Rome.	Lucilius, *Poet, ob.*
102	Marius defeats the Teutones and Cimbri.	101 Sext. Turpilius, *Com. ob.*
100	CLXXth Olympiad.	
91	The War of the Allies against the Romans.	
90	Sylla defeats the Marsi, Peligni, Samnites, &c.	— L. Afranius, *Com. fl.*
89	The Mithridatic War begins.	
88	Civil War between Marius and Sylla. — Sylla takes possession of Rome.	Alexander Polyh. *fl.*
86	Mithridates King of Pontus defeated by Sylla.	
83	Sylla defeats Norbanus. — The Capitol burned.	84 Cinna, *ob.*
82	Sylla perpetual Dictator. — His horrible proscription.	
80	Julius Cæsar makes his first campaign.	
79	Cicero's first oration for Roscius.	79 L. C. Sisenna, *Hist. fl.*
78	Sylla resigns all power, — and dies.	
77	The War of Sertorius.	
72	Lucullus repeatedly defeats Mithridates, and reduces Pontus to a Roman province.	73 Sertorius, *ob.*
70	Crassus and Pompey chosen Consuls at Rome.	Terentius Varro, *fl.*
63	Victories of Pompey. — He takes Jerusalem, and restores Hyrcanus to the government of Judæa.	Hortensius, *Orat. fl.* T. Pomp. Atticus, *fl.*
62	Catiline's conspiracy quelled at Rome by Cicero.	Asinius Pollio, *fl.*
61	Pompey enters Rome in triumph.	
60	CLXXXth Olympiad.	
59	The first Triumvirate: Pompey, Crassus, and Cæsar.	60 C. Dec. Laberius, *Mim. fl.*
——	Cæsar proposes a new Agrarian law.	
58	Clodius the Tribune procures the banishment of Cicero.	
57	Cæsar defeats Ariovistus in Gaul.	
——	Cicero brought back from exile with high honour.	
55	Cæsar lands in Britain for a short campaign.	Lucretius, *Poet, ob.*
54	—— invades Britain a second time, and conquers a part of the country.	
53	Crassus killed in Mesopotamia.	
52	Milo defended by Cicero for the slaughter of Clodius.	51 Possidonius, *ob. post.*
49	Cæsar passes the Rubicon, and marches to Rome.	49 Trogus Pompeius, *fl.*

Yrs. before Christ.		*Illustrious Persons.*
49	Commencement of the æra of Antioch, October A. C. 49	
48	Battle of Pharsalia, in which Pompey is defeated.	
——	Pompey slain in Egypt.	
——	The Alexandrian Library of 400,000 vols. burnt.	
46	Cato besieged in Utica, kills himself.	46 Alex. Polyhistor, *fl.*
45	The Kalendar reformed by Julius Cæsar, by introducing the Solar Year instead of the Lunar. The first Julian Year began 1st January 45 A. C.	
44	Julius Cæsar killed in the Senate-house.	44 Julius Cæsar, *ob.*
——	Octavius, grandnephew and heir of Julius Cæsar, comes to Rome, and is opposed at first by Antony.	Diodorous Siculus, *Hist. fl.*
43	Second Triumvirate: Octavius, Mark Antony, and Lepidus.	M. T. Cicero, *ob.*
42	Battle of Philippi, in which Brutus and Cassius are defeated.	A. Hirtius, *Hist. fl.*
40	Herod marries Mariamne, daughter of Hyrcanus, and obtains from the Romans the government of Judæa.	40 Catullus, *Poet, ob.* M. Junius Brutus, *fl.*
34	Antony divides Armenia among the children of Cleopatra.	35 Sallustius, *Hist. ob.*
33	Mauritania reduced into a Roman province.	Pub. Syrus, *Poet, fl.*
32	War declared by the senate against Antony and Cleopatra.	Manilius, *Poet, fl.* 33 Dioscorides, *Phys. ob.*
31	Battle of Actium and end of the Roman Commonwealth.	Corn. Gallus, *Poet, fl.*
——	Octavius Emperor of Rome.	Messala Corvinus, *Hist. fl.*
30	Death of Mark Antony and Cleopatra. — Alexandria taken by Octavius.	26 Terentius Varro, *ob.*
27	Octavius receives the title of Augustus.	Propertius, *Poet, fl.*
23	Death of Marcellus. — Agrippa in Spain.	25 Corn. Nepos, *Hist. ob.*
20	CXCth Olympiad.	19 Virgilius Maro, *ob.*
——	Porus King of India sends an Embassy to Augustus.	
17	Augustus revives the secular games.	M. Vitruvius Pollio, *Arch. fl.*
15	The Rhæti and Vindelici defeated by Drusus.	
10	The Temple of Janus shut by Augustus for a short time.	12 M. V. Agrippa, *ob.* Grat. Faliscus, *Poet, fl.*
8	Augustus corrects an error of the Roman Kalendar.	Horatius Flaccus, *ob.*
——	Death of Mecænas.	M. Scœvola *Ictus, fl.*
5	Augustus ordains a census of all the people in the Roman empire.	4 Verrius Flaccus, *Gr. fl.* N. Damascenus, *fl.*
4	JESUS CHRIST is born four years before the commencement of the vulgar æra.	Labeo, Capito *Icti, fl.* Hyginus, Math. *fl.*

Yrs. after Christ.		Illustrious Persons.
		Annaeus Seneca, *Or. fl.*
9	The Roman legions, under Varus, cut to pieces in Germany.	4 Phaedrus, *Poet, fl.* 5 Dionysius Hal. *Hist. fl.*
—	Ovid the Poet banished to Tomos.	Titus Livius, *Hist. ob.*
14	Tiberius Emperor of Rome.	
19	Germanicus dies at Antioch.	17 Ovidius *Poet, ob.*
—	Tiberius banishes the Jews from Rome.	Tibullus, *Poet, ob.*
21	CCth Olympiad.	17 Celsus, *Med. fl.*
25	CCIst Olympiad.	23 Valerius Max. *fl.*
25	Here the OLYMPIADS end.	
26	John the Baptist preaches in Judæa the coming of the Messiah.	25 Strabo, *Geo. ob.*
27	Tiberius retires to the island of Capreæ.	Valleius Paterculus, *ob.*
—	Pilate made Governor of Judæa.	
31	Sejanus disgraced, and put to death by Tiberius.	32 John the Baptist, *ob.*
33	¶ St. Peter first Pope.	— Columella, *fl.*
—	JESUS CHRIST is crucified.	
35	The conversion of St. Paul.	36 Fenestella, *Hist. fl.*
37	Caligula Emperor of Rome.	37 Isiodorus, *Geo. fl.*
39	St. Matthew writes his Gospel.	Philo Judaeus, *fl.*
40	The name of Christians first given to the disciples of Christ at Antioch.	
41	Claudius Emperor of Rome.	
—	Herod persecutes the Christians, and imprisons Peter.	
42	Sergius Paulus, proconsul, converted by St. Paul.	42 Asinius Pollio, *fl.*
43	Expedition of Claudius into Britain.	45 Pomp. Mela, *Geo. fl.*
44	St. Mark writes his Gospel.	
45	Vespasian in Britain.	
47	The *Ludi Sæculares* performed at Rome.	
48	Messalina put to death by Claudius, who marries Agrippina, the mother of Nero.	
50	St. Paul preaches in the Areopagus at Athens.	50 Aretæus Capp. *ob.*
51	Caractacus the British King is carried prisoner to Rome.	
54	Nero Emperor of Rome.	56 Cornutus, *Phil. fl.*
55	Britannicus poisoned by Nero.	Apollonius Tyanensis, *fl.*
59	Nero puts to death his mother Agrippina.	Quint. Curtius, *Hist. fl.*
60	Suetonius Paulinus defeats the Britons.	60 Portius Latro, *fl.*
61	The Britons under Queen Boadicea defeat the Romans.	62 Persius Sat. *ob.* 64 Asc. Pedianus, *fl.*
64	The first Persecution of the Christians raised by Nero.	65 Luc. An. Seneca, *Phil. ob.*
—	Rome set on fire by Nero.	

A. D.		*Illustrious Persons.*
66	Bareas Soranus and Thracea Pætus put to death by Nero.	— An. Lucanus, *Po. ob.* 66 Petronius Arb. *ob.*
—	¶ Pope Linus.	Dioscoridis, *Med. fl.*
67	Massacre of the Jews by Florus, at Cæsarea, Ptolemais, and Alexandria.	
—	St. Peter and St. Paul put to death.	
—	Josephus the Jewish historian, governor of Galilee.	
—	¶ Pope St. Clement.	
68	Galba Emperor of Rome.	
69	Otho Emperor of Rome.	
—	Vitellius Emperor of Rome.	
70	Vespasian Emperor of Rome.	74 Silius Italicus, *Poet, ob.*
—	Jerusalem taken and destroyed by Titus.	
77	¶ Pope St. Cletus.	Clemens Romanus, *fl.*
78	A great pestilence at Rome, 10,000 dying in one day.	
79	Titus Emperor of Rome.	
—	Herculaneum and Pompeii destroyed by an eruption of Vesuvius.	C. Plinius Secundus, *Nat. Hist. ob.*
80	Conquests of Agricola in Britain.	Florus, *Hist. fl.*
81	Domitian Emperor of Rome.	
83	¶ Pope Anacletus.	84 Valerius Flaccus, *Poet, fl.*
89	Apollonius of Tyanea defends himself before Domitian against an accusation of treason.	
95	Dreadful persecutions of the Christians at Rome, and in the provinces.	90 Martialis, *Poet, ob.* — Dio Chrysostom, *ob.*
—	St. John writes his Apocalypse.	93 Josephus *Hist. ob.*
—	——— writes his Gospel.	95 Quinctillian, *Gr. ob.*
96	Nerva Emperor of Rome.	96 Statius, *Poet, ob.* Sulpitia, *Poet, fl.*
—	¶ Pope Evaristus.	
98	Trajan Emperor of Rome.	99 Corn. Tacitus, *Hist. ob.*
—	Trajan forbids the Christian Assemblies.	— Julius Frontinus, *ob.*
100		
103	The Dacians subdued by Trajan.	103 Pliny Junior, *fl.*
107	Trajan's victories in Asia.	
108	St. Ignatius devoured by wild beasts at Rome.	
—	¶ Pope Alexander I.	114 Apicius Cœlus, *fl.*
115	The Jews in Cyrene murder 200,000 Greeks and Romans.	115 L. An. Florus, *Hist. fl.*
117	¶ Pope Sixtus I.	
118	Adrian Emperor of Rome.	

A. D.		Illustrious Persons.
118	Persecution of the Christians renewed by Adrian, but afterwards suspended.	119 Plutarc, *ob.*
120	Adrian's wall built across the island of Britain.	C. Suetonius, *Hist. fl.*
127	¶ Pope Telesphorus.	128 Juvenal, *Poet, ob.*
131	Adrian visits Egypt and Syria.	130 Aul. Gellius, *ob.*
132	——— publishes his perpetual edict or code of the laws.	Æl. Adrianus, *fl.* Arrian, *Hist. & Phil. fl.*
135	The Romans destroyed 580,000 Jews in Judæa.	Terentianus Maurus, *fl.*
137	Adrian rebuilds Jerusalem, by the name of Ælia Capitolina.	Justin Martyr, *fl.*
138	¶ Pope Hyginus.	
——	Antoninus Pius Emperor of Rome.	
139	Lollius Urbicus, Roman governor of Britain, pushes his conquests to the Murray Frith.	140 Ælian, *Hist. ob.*
——	The wall of Antoninus built between Forth and Clyde.	L. Apuleius, *fl.* Ptolemy, *Geog. fl.*
142	¶ Pope Pius I.	148 Appian, *Hist. ob.*
150	¶ Pope Anicetus.	M. Antoninus, *Phil. fl.*
154	Justin Martyr publishes his Apology for the Christians.	Epictetus, *Phil. ob.* Herdoes Atticus, *fl.*
161	Marcus Aurelius Antoninus, and Lucius Verus, Emperors of Rome.	155 Athenæus, *fl.* 163 Pausanias, *Hist. ob.*
162	¶ Pope Soter.	165 Polycarp, *Bish. ob.*
167	Polycarp and Pionices suffered martyrdom in Asia.	167 Justin, *Hist. fl.*
169	War with the Marcomanni.	170 DemetriusPhaler, *ob.*
171	Death of Verus. Marcus Aurelius sole Emperor.	Diophantes, *Math. fl.*
——	¶ Pope Eleutherius.	Lucian, *ob.*
177	Persecution of the Christians at Lyons.	180 Agathareides, *Phil. fl.*
180	Commodus Emperor of Rome.	
185	¶ Pope Victor I.	186 Julius Pollux, *ob.*
189	The Saracens defeat the Romans. — This people for the first time mentioned in history.	Herodianus, *Hist. fl.* Jamblichus, *Poet, fl.*
193	Pertinax Emperor of Rome. — Didius Julianus purchases the Empire.	Galen, *Phys. ob.* Sextus Empiricus, *fl.*
——	Pescennius Niger declared Emperor in the East.	Maximus Tyrius, *Phil. fl.*
——	Septimius Severus Emperor of Rome.	Plotinus, *Phil. fl.*
194	Niger defeated by Severus, and put to death.	Julius Solinus, *fl.*
195	Byzantium besieged, surrenders to Severus.	
196	Albinus proclaimed Emperor in Britain.	196 Athenæus, *ob.*
197	——— defeated by Severus, he kills himself.	Tertullian, *ob.*
——	¶ Pope Zephyrinus.	

A. D.		*Illustrious Persons.*
200		
202	The fifth Persecution against the Christians, principally in Egypt.	202 Irenæus, *ob.* Hegesippus, *Hist. fl.*
203	The Scots converted to Christianity by the preaching of Marcus and Dionysius.	Dionysius Cato, *Poet, fl.*
208	Severus, with his sons Caracalla and Geta, in Britain.	Philostratus, *fl.* 206 Clemens Alex. *fl.*
209	The Caledonians repulsed, and a wall built between the rivers Forth and Clyde.	207 Minucius Felix, *fl.* Papinianus, *ob.*
211	Caracalla and Geta Emperors of Rome.	
212	Caracalla murders Geta.	213 Oppian, *Poet, ob.*
217	Caracalla put to death.	
——	Macrinus Emperor of Rome.	
——	¶ Pope Calixtus I.	
218	Heliogabalus Emperor of Rome.	
222	Alexander Severus Emperor of Rome.	220 Julius Africanus, *Hist. fl.*
——	A tribute paid by the Romans to the Goths.	
——	¶ Pope Urban I.	Diogenes Laertius, *ob.*
226	The Persians totally defeated by Alexander Severus.	Ælianus, *Hist. fl.* 229 Dion Cassius, *fl.*
230	¶ Pope Pontianus.	Ulpianus, *fl.*
235	¶ Pope Anterus.	Julius Paulus, *fl.*
——	Maximinus assassinates Alexander Severus, and is proclaimed Emperor of Rome.	L. Pomponius, *fl.*
236	The Sixth Persecution of the Christians.	
——	¶ Pope Fabianus.	
237	Maximinus defeats the Dacians and Sarmatians.	
238	Maximus and Balbinus Emperors of Rome.	Censorius, *fl.*
——	Gordian Emperor of Rome.	Modestinus, *Ictus, fl.*
242	Gordian defeats the Persians under Sapor.	243 Ammonius, *Phil. fl.*
244	Philip the Arabian Emperor of Rome.	247 Herodian, *Hist. fl.*
248	The Secular Games celebrated at Rome. — Pompey's Theatre burned.	
——	St. Cyprian elected Bishop of Carthage.	
249	Decius Emperor of Rome.	
250	The seventh Persecution of the Christians under Decius.	
——	¶ Pope St. Cornelius.	
251	Vibius Volusianus Emperor of Rome.	
——	Gallus Emperor of Rome.	
252	¶ Pope Lucius I.	

A. D.		Illustrious Persons.
253	The Goths, Burgundians, &c. make an irruption into Mœsia and Pannonia.	
254	Valerianus Emperor of Rome.	Origen, *ob.*
——	¶ Pope Stephen I.	
257	The eighth Persecution of the Christians.	
——	¶ Pope Sixtus II.	258 Cyprian, *ob.*
259	The Persians ravage Syria.	
——	¶ Pope Dionysius.	
260	Gallienus Emperor of Rome.	
——	The Temple of Diana at Ephesus burned.	
261	Sapor, the Persian, takes Antioch, Tarsus, and Cæsarea.	
267	The Heruli invade and ravage Greece.	
268	Claudius II. Emperor of Rome.	Novatianus, *fl.*
269	The Goths and Heruli, to the number of 320,000, defeated by Claudius.	Anatolius, *Math. fl.*
——	¶ Pope Felix I.	
270	Aurelian Emperor of Rome.	270 Plotinus, *Phil. ob.*
271	The Alemanni and Marcomanni ravage the Empire.	
272	The ninth Persecution of the Christians.	
273	Zenobia Queen of Palmyra, defeated by Aurelian at Edessa.	Longinus, *ob.* Achilles Tatius, *Ast. fl.*
274	¶ Pope Eutychianus.	Paulus Samosatenus, *fl.*
275	Tacitus Emperor of Rome.	276 Modestus, *fl.*
276	Florianus Emperor of Rome.	280 Manes, *Phil. ob.*
277	Probus Emperor of Rome.	
282	Carus Emperor of Rome defeats the Quadi and Sarmatians.	
——	Carinus — Numerianus, Emperors of Rome.	
283	¶ Pope Caius.	
——	Fingal King of Morven died.	
284	Diocletian Emperor of Rome.	Nemesianus, *Poet, fl.*
286	The Empire attacked by the northern nations.	285 Arnobius, *fl.*
——	Carausius usurps the government of Britain, and reigns seven years.	289 Gregory, Hermogenes, *fl.*
290	The Gregorian and Hermogenian Codes published.	291 Ælius Spartianus, *Hist. fl.*
292	Partition of the empire by Diocletian between two Emperors and two Cæsars.	Julius Capitolinus, *Hist. fl.*
295	¶ Pope Marcellinus.	Vul. Gallicanus, *Hist. fl.*
——	Alexandria in Egypt taken by Diocletian.	Trebellius Pollio, *Hist. fl.*
300		Ælius Lampridius, *Hist. fl.*
302	The tenth Persecution of the Christians.	

A. D.		*Illustrious Persons.*
304	¶ Pope Marcellus.	Hierocles, *Poet, fl.*
——	Resignation of Diocletian and Maximian.	303 Fl. Vopiscus, *Hist. fl.*
——	Galerius and Constantius Emperors of Rome.	Steph. Byzantinus, *Hist. fl.*
305	Maximinus Emperor of Rome.	
306	Constantine the Great Emperor of Rome —stops the Persecution of the Christians.	Alciphron, *Rhet. fl.*
310	¶ Pope Eusebius.	
——	¶ Pope Melchiades.	311 Lactantius, *fl.*
313	Edict of Milan published by Constantine — Christianity tolerated through the empire.	312 Ossian, *Poet, fl.*
314	¶ Pope Sylvester.	
325	Constantine abolishes the combats of Gladiators.	
——	Constantine assembles the first General Council at Nice, where the doctrines of Arius are condemned.	
326	St. Athanasius, Bishop of Alexandria, introduces Monachism in the Roman Empire.	
329	Constantine removes the seat of empire to Constantinople.	
336	¶ Pope Marcus.	
337	¶ Pope Julius I.	336 Arius, *Presb. ob.*
——	Death of Constantine.—The empire divided among his three sons.	Stobæus, *Philol. fl.* Eusebius, *Hist. fl.* Donatus, *fl.*
——	Constantine II., Constans, and Constantius, Emperors of Rome.	
350	Constans murdered, — Magnentius assumes the purple.	
352	¶ Pope Liberius.	
356	¶ Pope Felix I.	Eutropius, *Hist. fl.*
357	The Germans defeated by Julian at Strasburgh.	Libanius, *Soph. fl.*
358	¶ Pope Felix II.	Julian, *Phil. fl.*
359	Council of Rimini held.	Hilary, Bp. of Poictiers, *fl.*
361	Julian Emperor of Rome — abjures Christianity, and is elected Pontifex Maximus.	
——	——— attempts fruitlessly to rebuild the Temple of Jerusalem.	
363	Jovian Emperor of Rome.	Jamblichus, *Phil. ob.*
364	Valentinian Emperor of the West. — Valens Emperor of the East.	Aurel. Victor, *fl.* Vegetius, *Hist. fl.*
366	¶ Pope Damasus.	
367	Gratian Emperor of the West.	371 St. Athanasius, *ob.*
375	Valentinian II. Emperor of the West.	372 Eunapius, *fl.*

A. D.		Illustrious Persons.
376	Valens allows the Goths to settle in Thrace.	R. Festus Avienus, *fl.*
378	The Goths advance to the gates of Constantinople. — Death of Valens.	Pappus, *Math. fl.*
379	Theodosius the Great Emperor of the East.	379 St. Bazil, *ob.*
381	Second General Council held at Constantinople.	380 Ammian. Marcel. *ob.*
383	The Huns over-run Mesopotamia,— are defeated by the Goths.	Prudentius, *Poet, fl.*
384	Symmachus pleads the cause of Paganism against St. Ambrose in the Senate.	
385	¶ Pope Syricius.	389 Gregory Naz. *ob.*
392	Theodosius Emperor of the West and East.	392 Ausonius, *Poet, ob.*
395	Arcadius Emperor of the East, and Honorius Emperor of the West.	
——	The Huns invade the Eastern provinces.	
397	St. Chrysostom chosen Patriarch of Constantinople.	397 St. Ambrose, *ob.*
399	¶ Pope Anastasius.	399 Hesychius, *fl.*
——	Gainas the Goth obtains honours from Arcadius.	Claudian, *Poet, fl.*
400		
——	Alaric the Goth ravages Italy.	Heliodorus, *Hist. Æth. fl.*
401	¶ Pope Innocent I.	
403	Stilicho, General of Honorius, defeats Alaric near Pollentia.	Longus, *fl.*
404	Fergus I. King of Scotland supposed to have begun his reign.	
406	The Vandals, Alans, &c. invade France and Spain.	407 St. Chrysostom, *ob.* Servius. *Com. fl.*
408	Theodosius II. Emperor of the East.	Orosius, *Hist. fl.*
410	Rome sacked and burned by Alaric. — Death of Alaric.	410 Cl. Rut. Numatianies, *fl.*
411	The Vandals settled in Spain.	416 Macrobius, *Philol. ob.*
416	The Secular Games celebrated at Rome.	
——	The Pelagian Heresy condemned by the Bishops of Africa.	
417	¶ Pope Zozimus.	Servius Honoratus, *Gr. fl.*
418	¶ Pope Boniface I.	
420	*Pharamond first King of the Franks* supposed to have begun his reign.	420 St. Jerome, *ob.* Sulpicius Severus, *ob.*
422	¶ Pope Cælestinus.	
424	Valentinian III. Emperor of the West.	
426	The Romans withdraw finally from Britain.	426 Zozimus, *Hist. fl.*
428	Ætius, the Roman general, defeats the Franks and Goths.	430 St. Augustine, *ob.* Olympiodorus, *Hist. fl.* Pelagius, *Her. ob.*
431	The third General Council held at Ephesus.	

A. D.		*Illustrious Persons,*
432	¶ Pope Sixtus III.	
435	The Theodosian Code published.	Cœlius Sedulius Scotus, *fl.*
439	Generic the Vandal invades and plunders Italy.	
——	Eudosia the Empress, wife of Theodosius, retires to Jerusalem.	
——	Carthage taken by the Vandals. — Kingdom of the Vandals in Africa.	
440	¶ Pope Leo the Great.	
442	Theodosius forced to make a disgraceful peace with Attila the Hun.	Taliranus Epis. Mas. *fl.*
——	Attila causes his brother Bleda to be murdered.	
445	The Britons in vain solicit the Romans to assist them against the Picts and Scots.	444 St. Cyril, *ob.*
——	Attila the Hun over-runs Illyrium, Thrace, Dacia, Mœsia, and Scythia.	
448	The Romans engage to pay a heavy tribute of gold to Attila.	
449	*Merovæus King of the Franks.*	
450	Marcian Emperor of the East.	Eutyches, *fl.*
——	Attila ravages Germany and France.	450 Sozomen, *Hist. ob.*
451	Theodoric King of the Visigoths killed in battle. — The Huns defeated by Ætius.	Agathias, *Hist. fl.*
——	The Saxons arrive in Britain under Hengist and Horsa.	
——	The fourth General Council held at Chalcedon.	
452	Foundation of the city of Venice.	
455	Petronius Maximus Emperor of the West.	
——	Avitus Emperor of the West.	
——	Rome taken and plundered by Genseric the Vandal.	
456	*Childerick King of the Franks.*	
457	Leo the Great Emperor of the East.	
——	Majorianus Emperor of the West.	
461	Severus Emperor of the West, raised by Ricimer.	
——	¶ Pope Hilarius.	463 Victorius of Aquit. *fl.*
467	Anathemius Emperor of the West.	466 Prosper, *ob.*
468	Euric King of the Visigoths drives the Romans out of Spain.	
——	¶ Pope Simplicius.	
470	Ælla the Saxon takes possession of the kingdom of Sussex.	
471	Ælla defeats all the British Princes.	
472	Great eruption of Mount Vesuvius, seen from Constantinople.	

A. D.		Illustrious Persons.
472	Olybius Emperor of the West.	
473	Glycerius Emperor of the West, degraded and stripped by	
474	Julius Nepos Emperor of the West.	
——	Zeno Emperor of the East.	
475	Augustulus Romulus Emperor of the West, raised by his father Orestes, General to Nepos.	
476	Orestes put to death by Odoacer King of the Heruli.	476 Hierocles, *fl.*
——	Rome taken by Odoacer, now King of Italy.	Q. Calaber, *Poet, fl.*
——	EXTINCTION OF THE WESTERN EMPIRE of the Romans, 507 years from the battle of Actium, and 1224 from the building of Rome.	
481	*Clovis King of the Franks.*	
——	Zeno makes Theodoric, the Ostrogoth, his General, and creates him Consul.	482 Sidonius Apollinaris, *ob.*
483	¶ Pope Felix III.	Simplicius, *Phil. fl.*
485	Battle of Soissons gained by Clovis.	
488	Theodoric, the Ostrogoth, entirely defeats Odoacer, and is acknowledged King of Italy by the Emperor Zeno.	
490	The Burgundians, under Gondebald, ravage Italy.	
——	Ireland, called the Isle of Saints, famous for its schools.	
491	Anastasius Emperor of the East.	491 St. Patrick, *ob.*
493	Odoacer put to death by Theodoric.	492 Gennadius, *ob.*
		Malchus, *Soph. fl.*
496	¶ Pope Anastasius II.	
497	Clovis and the Franks converted to Christianity.	
498	¶ Pope Symmachus.	
499	Alliance between Clovis and Theodoric the Great.	
500		
——	Gondebald, the Burgundian, becomes tributary to Clovis.	
501	The Burgundian laws published by Gondebald.	501 Zozimus, *Hist. ob.*
502	Cabades King of Persia ravages part of the Eastern Empire.	
504	The Eastern Empire makes peace with Cabades.	Steph. Byzantinus, *fl.*
507	Clovis defeats Alaric the Visigoth, and receives a congratulatory embassy, with a diadem, from Anastasius.	
508	Theodoric the Great defeats Clovis in the battle of Arles, and then makes peace with him.	
——	Arthur chosen Pendragon, or sovereign of the Cumbrian British kingdom.	

A. D.		*Illustrious Persons.*
510	Clovis makes Paris the capital of the kingdom of the Franks.	
511	Death of Clovis — Division of his kingdom among his four sons.	Proclus, *Phil. fl.*
—	*Childebert, Thierry, Clotaire, and Clodomir, Kings of the Franks.*	
512	The Heruli allowed by Anastasius to settle in Thrace.	
514	¶ Pope Hormisdas.	
515	Arthur King of the Britons supposed to have begun his reign.	
516	The computation of Time by the Christian Æra introduced by Dionysius the Monk.	Priscian, *fl.* Hesychius, *Hist. fl.*
517	The Getæ ravage Illyrium, Macedonia, and Epirus.	Festus Pompeius, *Gram. fl.*
518	Justin I. Emperor of the East, raised from obscurity.	Nonius Marcellus, *Gr. fl.*
519	Justin restores the Orthodox Bishops, and condemns the Eutychians.	
—	Cabades King of Persia, proposes that Justin should adopt his son Cosroes, and makes war on a refusal.	
523	¶ Pope John I.	
525	The Arian Bishops deposed by Justin, — highly resented by Theodoric.	521 Alcimus Avitus, *Poet, fl.*
—	Antioch and many other cities almost destroyed by an earthquake, but rebuilt by Justin. — He adopts his nephew Justinian.	
526	Theodoric puts to death Boethius and Symmachus.	Manl. Severas Boethius, *Phil. ob.*
—	¶ Pope Felix IV.	
527	Justinian I. Emperor of the East.	
529	Belisarius, General of Justinian, defeats the Persians.	529 Fulgentius, *ob.*
—	The Books of the Civil Law published by Justinian.	Tribonianus, *fl.*
530	¶ Pope Boniface II.	Achilles Tatius, *Hist. fl.*
532	Justinian congratulates Cosroes on succeeding to the throne of Persia, and concludes a perpetual peace with him.	
—	Great insurrection at Constantinople quelled with prodigious slaughter by Belisarius.	
533	Athalaric King of the Ostrogoths dying, is succeeded by his mother Amalasonta.	Procopius, *Hist. fl.* Marcellinus, *Hist. fl.*
—	¶ Pope John II.	Jo. Philoponus, *fl.*
534	*Theodobert King of Metz.*	
—	Belisarius defeats Gelimer and the Vandals in Africa.	
535	¶ Pope Agapetus.	

A. D.		Illustrious Persons.
536	¶ Pope Sylvester.	
537	Belisarius subdues the Ostrogoths in Italy, and takes Rome.	
538	¶ Pope Vigilius.	
540	Belisarius refuses to accept the crown of Italy.	
542	Arthur King of the Cumbrian Britons, killed in the battle of Camlan.	
543	Totila, the Goth, recovers Italy from the Romans.	
547	——— takes and plunders Rome.	Simplicius, *Phil. fl.*
——	Ida the Saxon, lands at Flamborough, subdues the country from the Humber to the Forth, and founds the Northumbrian kingdom.	
548	*Theodebald King of Metz.*	
549	Rome retaken by Belisarius.	
550	Commencement of the kingdom of Poland under Lechus.	Stobæus, *fl.*
——	Rome recovered by Totila.	
551	The manufacture of silk introduced into Europe.	552 Jornandes, *Hist. ob.*
553	Totila defeated by Narsus the Eunuch, and put to death.	
555	¶ Pope Pelagius I.	
558	The Huns breaking into Thrace, are defeated by Belisarius.	
559	Belisarius degraded, and ungratefully used by Justinian.	
——	*Clotaire sole King of France.*	
560	¶ Pope John III.	
——	Belisarius restored to his honours and command.	562 Cassiodorus, *Hist. ob.*
562	*Caribert, Gontran, Sigebert, and Chilperic, Kings of France.*	
565	Justin II. Emperor of the East.	565 Belisarius, *ob.*
——	The Picts converted to Christianity by St. Columba.	Agathias, *Hist. fl.*
566	Narses, recalled from Italy, invites the Lombards to take possession of the country.	570 Gildas, *Hist. ob.*
568	Italy conquered by the Lombards.	
571	Birth of Mahomet the false prophet.	Jo. Malala, *Hist. fl.*
574	¶ Pope Benedict I.	
578	Tiberius II. Emperor of the East.	
——	¶ Pope Pelagius II.	
580	The Latin Tongue ceases to be spoken in Italy about this time.	
582	Maurice, Emperor of the East.	
584	*Clotaire II. King of Soissons.*	

A. D.		Illustrious Persons.
590	Antioch again destroyed, with 30,000 inhabitants, by an earthquake.	Evagrias, *Hist, fl.*
—	¶ Pope Gregory the Great.	595 Gregory of Tours, *Hist. ob.*
596	*Thierry II. and Theodobert II. Kings of Paris and Austrasia.*	Venant. Fortunatus, *Po. & Hist. fl.*
—	Augustine the Monk converts the Saxons to Christianity.	
600		
602	Phocas, Emperor of the East, acknowledges the supremacy of the Popes.	
604	¶ Pope Sabinianus.	
607	¶ Pope Boniface III.	605 Augustine, *Monk, ob.*
—	The pantheon at Rome dedicated to God, the Virgin, and all the Saints.	
608	¶ Pope Boniface IV.	
609	The Jews of Antioch massacre the Christians.	
611	Heraclius, Emperor of the East.	
613	The French Maires du Palais first introduced by Clotaire as Regents.	
614	*Clotaire II. sole King of France.*	Secundus, *Hist. fl.*
—	Queen Brunechilda, accused of numberless crimes, is put to death by Clotaire II.	
615	¶ Pope Deus-dedit.	
616	Jerusalem taken by the Persians under Cosroes II.	
618	¶ Pope Boniface V.	
622	Æra of the Hegyra, or flight of Mahomet from Mecca to Medina.	
625	¶ Pope Honorius I.	
—	The Persians under Cosroes II. with the Huns, Abari, and Sclavonians, besiege Constantinople.	
628	*Dagobert and Charibert Kings of France.*	Mahomet, *Prophet, ob.*
632	Abubeker succeeds Mahomet as Caliphate of the Saracens.	
633	Abubeker dies, and is succeeded by Omar in the Caliphate.	
636	Jerusalem taken by Omar and the Saracens, who keep possession of it 463 years.	636 Isidorus Hisp. *ob.*
638	*Sigibert II. and Clovis II. Kings of France.*	
640	¶ Pope Severinus.	
—	¶ Pope John IV.	
—	The Library of Alexandria, founded by Ptolemy Philadelphus, is burnt by the Saracens.	
641	Constantine, Emperor of the East for a few months, poisoned by his stepmother.	641 George Pisides, *ob.*

A. D.		*Illustrious Persons.*
641	Heraclionas and Tiberius III. Emperors of the East.	
642	Constans, son of Constantine, Emperor of the East.	
——	¶ Pope Theodorus.	
645	Otman succeeds Omar in the Caliphate.	
648	Cyprus taken by the Saracens under Mawia.	
649	¶ Pope Martin I.	
653	The Saracens take Rhodes, and destroy the Colossus.	
654	*Childeric II. King of Austrasia.*	
——	¶ Pope Eugenius I.	
655	Ali Caliph of Arabia.—Mawia Caliph of Egypt.	Ildefonsus, *Hist. fl.*
657	¶ Pope Vitalianus.	
658	The Saracens obtain peace of the Emperor Constans, and agree to pay a yearly tribute.	
668	Constantius V. (Pogonatus) Emperor of the East.	
669	Sicily ravaged by the Saracens.	
672	¶ Pope Adeodatus.	Paulus Ægineta, *Med. fl.*
——	The Saracens ineffectually besiege Constantinople. —Their fleet destroyed by the Greek fire used by Callinicus.	Callinicus, *Math. fl.*
675	The Saracens attempt to land in Spain, but are repulsed by Wamba King of the Visigoths.	
676	¶ Pope Donus.	
679	*Thierry IV. King of all France.*	
——	¶ Pope Agatho.	
680	The sixth General or Œcumenical Council of Constantinople.	Adamnanus Scotus, *Hist. fl.*
682	¶ Pope Leo II.	
684	¶ Pope Benedict II.	
685	¶ Pope John V.	
——	Justinian II. Emperor of the East.	
——	The Britons, totally subdued by the Saxons, retreat into Wales and Cornwall.	
——	Egfrid the Saxon penetrates northward to Angus, but is slain by Bredei the Pictish King.	
686	¶ Pope Conon.	
——	Ceadwalla King of Wessex subdues Sussex and Kent.	
687	¶ Pope Sergius.	
690	Pepin Heristel, *Maire du Palais*, defeats Thierry and acquires the chief power in France.	

A. D.		Illustrious Persons.
692	*Clovis III. King of France.*	
694	Justinian II. dethroned, mutilated, and banished by Leontius.	
695	*Childebert III. King of France.*	
——	Leontius Emperor of the East,—dethroned and mutilated by	
697	Apsimar or Tiberius Emperor of the East.	
699	The Saracens defeated by John the Patrician.	
700		Achab Saracen, *Con. ob.*
——	The Saracens again defeated with great slaughter by Heraclius, brother of Tiberius.	
701	¶ Pope John VI.	
704	Justinian II. escapes from prison, defeats Tiberius, and is restored to the throne.	
707	Justinian II. defeated by the Bulgarians.	
708	¶ Pope Sisinnius.	
——	¶ Pope Constantine.	
711	Philippicus Bardanes Emperor of the East.	
——	*Dagobert III. King of France.*	
713	Anastasius II. Emperor of the East.	
——	Spain conquered by the Saracens under Muca, the General of the Caliph Walid.	
714	¶ Pope Gregory II.	
——	Theodosius III. Emperor of the East.	Muca the Saracen, *ob.*
——	Charles Martel, *Maire du Palais*, governs all France for twenty-six years.	
716	*Childeric II. King of France.*	
——	Leo (the Isurian) Emperor of the East.	
720	Omar II. besieges Constantinople without success.	
——	*Thierry IV. King of France.*	
726	Leo forbids the worship of images, which occasions a great rebellion of his subjects, the Pope defending the practice.	
728	Leo orders Pope Gregory to be seized, and sent to Constantinople; but the order is frustrated, and Leo confiscates the imperial domains of Sicily and Calabria.	
729	The Saracens ravage Gallia Narbonnensis.	
731	¶ Pope Gregory III.	
732	Charles Martel defeats the Saracens between Tours and Poictiers.	735 Bede, *Hist. ob.*
736	Leo persecutes the Monks.	

A. D.		Illustrious Persons.
737	Death of Pelagius, who preserved the Christian monarchy in Asturia.	
740	The duchy of Spoleto seized by the Normans. — Recovered by the Pope.	
741	¶ Pope Zachary.	
742	*Childeric III. King of France.*	Fredegaire, *Hist. fl.*
——	Constantine (Copronymus) Emperor of the East. — Enemy to images and saint-worship.	
743	———— defeats and puts to death Artabazdus, who had seized Constantinople.	
745	———— destroys the fleet of the Saracens.	
749	The race of the Abassidæ become Caliphs of the Saracens.	
751	*Pepin (le Bref) King of France, founder of the second or Carlovingian race.*	
752	¶ Pope Stephen III.	
753	Astolphus King of the Lombards erects the Dukedom of Ravenna, and claims from the Pope the Dukedom of Rome.	
754	Pope Stephen requests the assistance of Pepin against the Lombards.	
——	Pepin invades Italy, and strips Astolphus of his new possessions, conferring them on the Pope as a temporal sovereignty.	
——	Almanzor Caliph of the Saracens, a great encourager of learning.	
756	Desiderius or Didier proclaimed King of the Lombards, with the Pope's consent.	
——	Abdalrahman I. takes the title of King of Cordova, and is the founder of the splendid dominion of the Moors in Spain,	
757	¶ Pope Paul I. renews the alliance with Desiderius.	
759	¶ Pope Stephen III. quarrels with Desiderius.	
762	Almanzor builds Bagdat, and makes it the seat of the empire of the Caliphs.	760 Jo. Damascenus, *ob.*
767	The Turks ravage Asia Minor.	
768	*Charles (the Great) and Carloman Kings of France.*	
——	¶ Pope Stephen IV.	
770	Constantine dissolves the Monasteries in the East.	
772	*Charlemagne sole Monarch of France.*	
——	———— makes war against the Saxons.	
——	¶ Pope Adrian I.	
774	Charlemagne defeats Desiderius, and puts an end to the kingdom of the Lombards, which had subsisted 206 years.	

A. D.		*Illustrious Persons.*
775	Leo IV. Emperor of the East.	
778	Battle of Roncezvalles between the Christians and Moors in Spain, where Rolando is killed.	
779	Charlemagne conquers Navarre and Sardinia.	
781	Constantine (Porphyrogenitus) Emperor of the East.	
——	Irene, Empress, Regent in her son's minority, keeps him in entire subjection.	
——	—— she re-establishes the worship of images.	
785	Charlemagne subdues the Saxons.	
——	Haroun Alraschid Caliph of the Saracens.	
——	———— invades and ravages a part of the empire.	
786	Constantine assumes the government of the empire, and imprisons his mother.	
787	The Danes under their pirate chiefs, or Vikingr, for the first time, land in England.	
——	The seventh General Council or second of Nice, is held.	
788	Irene puts to death her son Constantine, and is proclaimed sole Empress.	
793	—— proposes to marry Charlemagne, which being disapproved of by her subjects, she is dethroned, and confined to a monastery.	Geo. Syncellus, *fl.*
——	Nicephorus Emperor of the East.—Here begins the Lower or Greek empire.	
794	Charlemagne defeats and utterly extirpates the Huns.	
795	¶ Pope Leo III.	
797	The Saracens ravage Cappadocia, Cyprus, Rhodes, &c.	
——	Nicephorus associates his son Saturacius in the Empire.	
800		
——	New Empire of the West. — Charlemagne crowned Emperor at Rome.	801 Paul Diaconus, *ob.*
807	Haroun Alraschid courts the alliance of Charlemagne.	Mesue *Arab. Med. fl.*
		804 Alcuin, *Hist. ob.*
811	Michael (Curopalates) Emperor of the East.	
813	Leo (the Armenian) Emperor of the East.	
——	Almamon, Caliph of the Saracens, a great encourager of learning.	

A. D.		Illustrious Persons.
814	*Lewis (le Débonnaire) Emperor and King of France.*	814 Charlemagne, *ob.*
816	The Eastern Empire ravaged by earthquakes, famine, conflagrations, &c.	
——	¶ Pope Stephen V.	
817	¶ Pope Pascal I.	
——	Lewis (le Deb.) divides the empire among his sons.	
821	Michael (Balbus or the Stammerer) Emperor of the East.	
824	¶ Pope Eugene II.	
827	**Egbert** unites the Kingdoms of the Saxon Heptarchy.—Beginning of the kingdom of England.	
——	¶ Pope Valentine.	
828	¶ Pope Gregory IV.	
829	Theophilus Emperor of the East.	
838	**Ethelwolf** King of England.	
——	The Scots under Kenneth entirely subdue the Picts.	
840	*LOTHARIUS* Emperor of Germany.	
	Charles (the Bald) King of France.	
841	Lotharius defeated by his two brothers in the battle of Fontenai, and deposed.	Albumazar, *Ast. fl.*
		Eginhart, *Hist. ob.*
842	*LEWIS* (of Bavaria) Emperor of Germany.	
——	Michael III. Emperor of the East.	
843	The Normans plunder the city of Rouen.	Achmet, *Astron. fl.*
——	Kenneth M'Alpin King of Scots subdues the Pictish kingdom, and unites it to the Scottish.	
844	¶ Pope Sergius III.	
845	The Normans plunder Hamburgh, and penetrate into Germany.	
847	¶ Pope Leo IV.	
848	The Venetian fleet destroyed by the Saracens.	
851	¶ Pope Joan, supposed to have filled the Papal Chair for two years.	
——	Basilius associated Emperor of the East.	
855	LEWIS II. Emperor of Germany.	
857	**Ethelbald** and **Ethelbert** Kings of England.	857 Photius, Patr. *ob.*
858	¶ Pope Nicholas I.	858 Nennius, *Hist. fl.*
866	**Ethelred** King of England.	
867	The Danes ravage England.	
——	Basilius sole Emperor of the East.	
——	¶ Pope Adrian II.	

A. D.		*Illustrious Persons.*
867	Photius, Patriarch of Constantinople, excommunicates Pope Adrian.	870 Godescalcus, *ob.*
872	Alfred (the Great) King of England.	
——	¶ Pope John VIII.	874 Ado, *Hist. ob.*
875	CHARLES (the Bald) Emperor of Germany.	
——	Harold Harfager unites the provinces of Norway, conquers Orkney, Shetland, and the Hebrides, and appoints Earls to govern them.	
877	LEWIS (the Stammerer) Emperor of Germany and *King of France.*	878 Hubba, Dane, *ob.*
879	*Lewis III. and Carloman Kings of France.*	
——	The kingdom of Arles begins.	
880	CHARLES (the Gross) Emperor of Germany and *King of France.*	
——	Ravages of the Normans in France.	
882	¶ Pope Marinus.	882 Hincomarus, *ob.*
884	¶ Pope Adrian III.	883 Scotus Erigena, *ob.*
886	Leo (the Philosopher) Emperor of the East.	Nicetas, *Hist. fl.*
——	The University of Oxford founded by Alfred.	Alfred, *fl.*
887	ARNOLD Emperor of Germany.	Abbo, *Poet. fl.*
——	The Normans besiege Paris, which is gallantly defended by Bishop Goselin and Count Eudes.	
888	*Eudes or Odo King of France.*	
890	Alfred the Great composes his Code of Laws, and divides England into Counties, Hundreds, and Tythings.	
891	¶ Pope Formosus.	
896	¶ Pope Stephen VII.	
897	¶ Pope John IX.	
898	*Charles III. (the Simple) King of France.*	
900		
——	¶ Pope Benedict IV.	
——	LEWIS IV. Emperor of Germany.	
901	Edward (the Elder) succeeds Alfred as King of England.	
904	¶ Pope Leo V.	
905	¶ Pope Sergius III.	
911	CONRAD I. Emperor of Germany.	
——	Constantine IX. Emperor of the East.	
912	The Normans are established in Normandy under Rollo.	
913	¶ Pope Anastasius.	
914	¶ Pope Landon.	

A. D.		Illustrious Persons.
915	Constantine and Romanus Emperors of the East.	
——	¶ Pope John X.	
——	The University of Cambridge founded by Edward the Elder.	
920	Henry (the Fowler) Emperor of Germany.	
923	*Rodolph King of France.*	
928	Athelstan King of England.	
——	¶ Pope Leo VI.	
929	¶ Pope Stephen VIII.	
931	¶ Pope John XI.	
——	Rise of the Republic of Pisa.	
——	City of Geneva overrun by the Saracens.	
936	Otho (the Great) Emperor of Germany.	Azophi, *Ar. Ast. fl.*
——	¶ Pope Leo VII.	
——	*Lewis IV. (d'Outremer) King of France.*	
939	¶ Pope Stephen IX.	
940	Howel-Dha King of Wales, an eminent lawgiver.	
941	Edmund I. King of England.	942 Eudes de Cluni, *ob.*
943	¶ Pope Marinus XIII.	
946	¶ Pope Agapet.	
948	Edred King of England.	
954	*Lotharius King of France.*	Alfarabius, *Ar. Ast. fl.*
955	Edwy King of England.	
956	¶ Pope John XII.	
959	Romanus II. Emperor of the East.	
——	Edgar King of England.	
963	¶ Pope Leo VIII.	
——	Nicephorus Phocas Emperor of the East.	
964	Otho the Great conquers Italy.	
965	¶ Pope John XIII.	
967	Antioch recovered from the Saracens by Nicephorus.	
969	John Zemisses Emperor of the East.	970 Luitprand, *Hist. ob.*
972	¶ Pope Benedict VI.	
973	Otho II. Emperor of Germany.	
974	¶ Pope Boniface VII.	
975	Kenneth III. annexes the Britons of Strathcluyd to the Scottish kingdom.	
——	¶ Pope Benedict VII.	
——	Basilius and Constantine X. Emperors of the East.	

A. D.		Illustrious Persons.
976	**Edward II.** King of England.	
978	**Ethelred II.** King of England.	
983	OTHO III. Emperor of Germany.	
984	¶ Pope John XIV.	
986	¶ Pope John XV.	
——	*Lewis V. (le Fainéant) King of France.*	
987	*Hugh Capet King of France, founder of the third race of the French Kings.*	
991	The Arabic numeral cyphers first introduced into Europe.	
996	*Robert (the Wise) King of France.*	
——	¶ Pope Gregory V.	
999	¶ Pope Sylvester II.	
1000		
1002	HENRY II. Emperor of Germany.	
——	Great massacre of the Danes by Ethelred King of England.	
1003	¶ Pope John XVI.	
——	¶ Pope John XVII.	
1004	¶ Pope John XVIII.	1004 Abbo of Fleury, *Theol. ob.*
1005	Churches first built in the Gothic style.	
1009	¶ Pope Sergius IV.	1008 Aimoin, *Hist. ob.*
1012	¶ Pope Benedict VIII.	1010 Rhazes, *Ar. Phil. ob.*
1013	The Danes, under Sueno, get possession of England.	
1015	The Manichean doctrines prevalent in France and Italy.	
1016	**Edmund II.** (Ironside) King of England.	
1012	Six battles fought with the Danes under Canute in England.	
1017	**Canute** the Dane (the Great) King of England.	
1018	The Normans invade Italy.	
1024	¶ Pope John XIX. or XX.	
——	CONRAD II. (the Salic) Emperor of Germany.	Guido Aretino, *Monk, fl.*
1025	Musical characters invented by Guido Aretino.	
1028	Romanus Argyrus Emperor of the East.	
1031	*Henry I. King of France.*	
1033	¶ Pope Benedict IX.	
1034	Michael IV. Emperor of the East.	
1036	**Harold** (Harefoot) King of England.	
1039	HENRY III. Emperor of Germany.	Avicenna, Arab. *Med. ob.*

A. D.		Illustrious Persons.
1039	Canute II. or Hardicanute King of England.	
——	Macbeth usurps the throne of Scotland, by the murder of Duncan.	
1041	Edward III. (the Confessor) King of England, restores the Saxon line.	
——	Michael (Calaphales) Emperor of the East.	
1042	Constantine (Monomachus) Emperor of the East.	
1043	The Turks, under Tangrolipix, subdue Persia.	
1045	¶ Pope Gregory VI.	
1046	¶ Pope Clement II.	
1048	¶ Pope Damasus II.	
1049	¶ Pope Leo IX. the first Pope who maintained a regular army.	
1054	Theodora Empress of the East.	
——	Pope Leo IX. taken prisoner by the Normans.	
1055	¶ Pope Victor II.	
——	The Turks take Bagdat, and overturn the empire of the Caliphs.	
1056	Henry IV. Emperor of Germany.	
1057	Malcolm III. (Canmore) King of Scotland.	
——	Isaac (Comnenus) Emperor of the East.	
——	¶ Pope Stephen X.	
1058	¶ Pope Nicholas II.	
——	The Saracens driven out of Sicily by Robert Guiscard the Norman.	Guido of Amiens, *Poet, fl.*
1059	Constantine XII. (Ducas) Emperor of the East.	
1060	*Philip I. King of France.*	
1061	Rise of the faction of the Guelphs and Ghibellines.	
——	Henry IV. of Germany on his knees asks pardon of the Pope.	
——	¶ Pope Alexander II.	
1065	The Turks take Jerusalem from the Saracens.	
1066	Harold II. King of England, reigned nine months.	
——	William (the Conqueror) King of England.	Suidas, *fl.*
1068	Romanus Diogenes Emperor of the East.	
——	Edgar Atheling seeks refuge in Scotland.	
——	Margaret, sister of Edgar Atheling, married to Malcolm King of Scotland.	

A. D.		*Illustrious Persons.*
1070	The feudal law introduced into England.	
1071	Michael Ducas Emperor of the East.	Const. Afer, *Med. fl.*
1073	¶ Pope Gregory VII.	
1076	The Emperor Henry IV. excommunicated and deposed by the Pope.	
1078	Nicephorus (Boton) Emperor of the East.	
1079	Doomsday-book begun by William the Conqueror.	
1081	Alexius I. (Comnenus) Emperor of the East.	Will. of Spires, *Mat. fl.*
——	Henry IV. Emperor besieges Rome.	
1084	———— re-crowned Emperor of Germany.	Will. of Apulia, *Poet, fl.*
1086	¶ Pope Victor III.	
1087	¶ Pope Urban II.	1088 Berenger, *Poet of Provence, ob.*
——	William II. (Rufus) King of England.	
1093	St. Margaret Queen of Scotland died.	1089 Abp. Lanfranc, *ob.*
——	Donald Bane King of Scotland.	Gualfredo of Sienna, *Poet, fl.*
1095	Duncan II. King of Scotland.	
——	Institution of the order of the Knights of Jerusalem.	
——	The first Crusade to the Holy Land. — Peter the Hermit.	
1097	Newcastle on Tyne built by Malcolm Canmore.	
1098	Magnus Barefoot, King of Norway, reduces Orkney, Shetland, and the Hebrides, to complete subjection to his crown.	
——	The Crusaders take Antioch.	
——	Edgar King of Scotland.	
1099	Jerusalem taken by Godfrey of Boulogne. — The Knights of St. John instituted.	Rodrigo the Cid, *ob.*
——	¶ Pope Paschal II.	
1100		
——	Henry I. (Beauclerc) King of England.	
1102	Guiscard of Normandy takes the title of King of Naples.	
1104	Baldwin King of Jerusalem takes Ptolemais.	1105 Raymond Count de Thoulouse, *Po. ob.*
1106	Henry V. Emperor of Germany.	
1107	Alexander I. King of Scotland.	
1108	*Lewis VI. (le Gros) King of France.*	1110 Alhazen Math. *fl.*
1110	¶ Pope Gelasius II.	1113 Sigebert, *Hist. ob.*
——	The order of Knights Templars instituted.	Anna Comnena, *Hist. fl.*
——	John (Comnenus) Emperor of the East.	Laurenzio of Verona, *Poet, fl.*

A. D.		Illustrious Persons.
1119	¶ Pope Calixus II.	Gunther Germ. *Po. fl.*
1124	DAVID I. King of Scotland.	
——	¶ Pope Honorius II.	
1125	LOTHARIUS II. Emperor of Germany.	
1130	¶ Pope Innocent II.	
1135	Stephen King of England.	
1137	*Lewis VII. (le Jeune) King of France,* married to Eleanor of Guienne.	
——	The Pandects of the Roman law discovered at Amalphi.	
1138	CONRAD III. Emperor of Germany.	
——	The Scots, under David I., defeated by the English in the battle of the Standard.	
1139	Alphonso I. King of Portugal, rescues that kingdom from the Saracens.	
1140	The Canon law first introduced into England.	Will. of Malmsbury, *Hist. fl.*
1141	Stephen King of England taken prisoner in the battle of Lincoln, by the troops of Matilda.	
1143	——— recovers his kingdom.	1143 Peter Abelard, *ob.*
——	¶ Pope Cælestinus II.	
——	Manuel (Comnenus) Emperor of the East.	
1144	¶ Pope Lucius II.	
1145	¶ Pope Eugene III.	
1147	The second Crusade, excited by St. Bernard.	
1150	The study of the Civil Law revived at Bologna.	
1151	The Canon Law is collected by Gratian, a Monk of Bologna.	
1152	FREDERICK I. (Barbarossa) Emperor of Germany.	Geoff. of Monmouth, *fl.*
1153	MALCOLM IV. King of Scotland.	
——	¶ Pope Anastasius IV.	
——	Treaty of Winchester.—Compromise between King Stephen and Prince Henry.	Ben Edris of Nubia, *Geog. fl.*
1154	Henry II. (Plantagenet) King of England.	
——	¶ Pope Adrian IV.	Eustathius, *Com. on Hom. fl.*
——	The parties of the Guelphs and Ghibellines disturb Italy.	
1157	The Bank of Venice instituted.	Sylvester Gerald, *Hist fl.*
1158	Interview between Henry II. and Malcolm IV. at Carlisle.	
1159	¶ Pope Alexander III.	
1160	The Albigenses maintain heretical doctrines.	1163 Eloisa, *ob.*

A. D.		*Illustrious Persons.*
1164	Institution of the order of Teutonic Knights in Germany.	Peter Lombard, *ob.*
——	T. Becket condemned by the Council of Clarendon.	Aben Ezra Theol. *fl.*
1165	WILLIAM (the Lion) King of Scotland.	Hen. of Huntingdon, *fl.* 1166 Aelred, *Hist. ob.*
1171	T. Becket murdered at Canterbury.	
1172	Conquest of Ireland by Henry II.	
1180	*Philip Augustus King of France.*	Ran. de Glanville, *fl.*
——	Alexis II. (Comnenus) Emperor of the East.	Joseph of Exeter, *fl.*
1181	¶ Pope Lucius III.	
1183	Andronicus (Comnenus) Emperor of the East.	Walter de Mapes, *fl.*
1185	¶ Pope Urban III.	
——	Isaac Angelus Emperor of the East.	
1187	¶ Pope Gregory VIII.	John of Salisbury, *ob.*
——	The city of Jerusalem taken by Saladin.	
1188	¶ Pope Clement III.	Brito Armoricus, *Po. fl.*
1189	Richard I. (Cœur de Lion) King of England.	
——	The third Crusade, under Richard I. and Philip Augustus.	Giraldus Cambrensis, *fl.* Will. of Newburgh, *fl.*
1190	HENRY VI. Emperor of Germany.	
1191	¶ Pope Cælestinus III.	
1192	Richard I. defeats Saladin in the battle of Ascalon.	Rich. of Hoveden, *Hist. fl.*
——	Guy of Lusignan King of Jerusalem.	
1195	Alexius Angelus (the Tyrant) Emperor of the East.	
1198	PHILIP Emperor of Germany.	
——	¶ Innocent III.	
1199	John King of England.	
1200		
1202	The fourth Crusade sets out from Venice.	Peter of Blois, *Hist. ob.*
——	Constantinople taken by the French and Venetians.	Gerv. of Canterbury, *fl.*
1203	Alexius and Murbzuphlus Emperors of the East.	Saxo Grammaticus, *fl.*
1204	Baldwin I. Emperor of Constantinople, and Theodore I. (Lascaris) Emperor of Nicæa.	
——	The Inquisition established by Pope Innocent III.	
1206	Henry Emperor of Constantinople.	1206 Averrhoes Med. *ob.*
1208	OTHO IV. Emperor of Germany.	
——	London incorporated, obtains a charter for electing its Mayor and Magistrates.	Ph. Gaultier de Chatillon, *Poet, fl.*

A. D.		*Illustrious Persons.*
1210	Crusade against the Albigenses, under Simon de Montfort.	
1212	FREDERICK II. Emperor of Germany.	
1214	ALEXANDER II. King of Scotland.	
1215	Magna Charta signed by King John.	
1216	HENRY III. King of England.	
——	Peter and John Ducas Emperors of the East.	
1219	Robert Emperor of the East.	
——	Damietta taken by the Crusaders.	
1223	*Lewis VIII. King of France.*	1224 Raymond Count de Thoulouse, *ob.*
1226	Institution of the orders of St. Dominic and St. Francis.	
——	¶ Pope Honorius III.	
——	*St. Lewis IX. King of France.*	
1227	¶ Pope Gregory IX.	
——	Gengiskan and the Tartars overrun the empire of the Saracens.	Gengiskan, *ob.*
1228	Baldwin II. French Emperor of Constantinople.	
1234	The Inquisition committed to the Dominican Monks.	
1237	Russia brought under subjection by the Tartars.	1229 Accursius Ictus, *fl.*
1241	¶ Pope Cælestinus IV.	
1243	¶ Pope Innocent IV.	
1248	The fifth Crusade, under St. Lewis.	William of Brittany, *Po. fl.*
1249	ALEXANDER III. King of Scotland.	
1251	CONRAD IV. Emperor of Germany.	Nicolas de Bray, *Po. fl.*
1254	¶ Pope Alexander IV.	
——	Interregnum in the empire of Germany, from the death of Conrad IV. in 1254, to the election of Rodolph in 1273.	
1255	Theodore II. (Lascaris) Emperor of Nicæa.	1250 Albufaragi, *Hist. fl.*
1258	Bagdat taken by the Tartars.—End of the empire of the Saracens.	
1259	John (Lascaris) Emperor of Nicæa.	
1260	Michael (Palæologus) Emperor of Nicæa.	1259 Mat. Paris, *Hist. ob.*
——	The Flagellants preach baptism with blood.	
1261	¶ Pope Urban IV.	
——	The Greek Emperors recover Constantinople from the French.	
1263	The Norwegians invade Scotland, and are defeated by Alexander III. in the battle of Largs.	
1264	¶ Pope Clement IV.	

A. D.		Illustrious Persons.
1264	The Deputies of Boroughs first summoned to Parliament in England.	
——	Henry III. of England taken prisoner in the battle of Lewes.	
1265	Charles Count of Anjou King of Sicily.	
1270	*Philip III. (the Bold) King of France.*	
1271	¶ Pope Gregory X.	
1272	**Edward I.** (Longshanks) King of England.	
1273	RODOLPH (of Hapsburg) Emperor of Germany, first of the Austrian family.	1274 St. T. Aquinas, *ob.*
1276	¶ Pope Innocent V.	
——	¶ Pope Adrian V.	
——	¶ Pope John XXI.	
1277	¶ Pope Nicholas III.	
1281	¶ Pope Martin IV.	1280 Albertus Mag. *Phil. ob.*
1282	The Sicilian Vespers, when 8,000 French were massacred in one night.	
1283	Andronicus I. (Palæologus) Emperor of the East.	Joannes a Janua, *Gr. fl.*
——	The conquest of Wales by Edward I.	1284 Roger Bacon, *Phil. ob.*
1285	¶ Pope Honorius IV.	
	Philip IV. (the Fair) King of France.	
1286	MARGARET (of Norway) Queen of Scotland.	
1288	¶ Pope Nicholas IV.	1286 Abulfaragius, *Hist. ob.*
1290	Interregnum in Scotland for two years.—Competition between Bruce and Baliol for the Crown. Decided by Edward I.	
1291	Ptolemais taken by the Turks.—End of the Crusades.	
1292	JOHN Baliol King of Scotland.	
——	ADOLPHUS (of Nassau) Emperor of Germany.	
——	¶ Pope Cælestinus V.	
1293	Jubilee first celebrated at Rome.	
——	From this year there is a regular succession of English Parliaments.	
1294	¶ Pope Boniface VIII.	
1295	Michael Andronicus Emperor of the East.	1295 Brunetto Latini, *Rhet. ob.*
1296	Interregnum in Scotland for eight years.—Sir William Wallace nobly supports the liberty of his country, defeats the English at Stirling, and drives them out of the kingdom.	
1298	Wallace chosen Regent of Scotland,—defeated at Falkirk.	

A. D.		*Illustrious Persons.*
1298	ALBERT I. (of Austria) Emperor of Germany.	
——	The present Turkish empire begins under Ottoman in Bithynia.	
1299	☾ Ottoman or Othoman first Sultan and founder of the Turkish empire.	
1300		
1301	Quarrel between Philip the Fair and Pope Boniface VIII.	Ciambue, *Painter, ob.*
1302	Comyn and Frazer defeat the English thrice in one day.	
——	The Mariner's Compass said to be discovered at Naples.	1303 Abram Ben Casa, *Astron. ob.*
1304	Wallace betrayed, delivered up, and put to death by Edward I.	
1305	¶ Pope Clement V.	
1306	ROBERT I. (Bruce) King of Scotland.	
1307	The establishment of the Swiss Republics.	
——	**Edward II.** King of England.	
1308	HENRY VII. Emperor of Germany.	Joh. Duns Scotus, *ob.*
——	Donati killed at Florence.	1308 Jo. Fordun, *Hist. ob.*
——	The seat of the Popes transferred to Avignon for seventy years.	
1310	Rhodes taken by the Knights of St. John of Jerusalem.	
1311	Pierce Gaveston, favourite of Edward II. put to death.	
1312	The Knights Templars suppressed by Philip the Fair.	
1314	The Scots under Robert Bruce defeat the English under Edward II. at Bannockburn.	
——	LEWIS V. (of Bavaria) Emperor of Germany.	
——	*Lewis X. (Hutin) King of France.*	
1315	*John King of France.*	1315 Guy Earl of Warwick, *ob.*
1316	¶ Pope John XXII.	
——	*Philip V. (the Long) King of France.*	Raym. Lulli, *Phil. ob.*
1320	Andronicus II. (Palæologus) Emperor of the East.	1318 Joinville, *Hist. ob.*
1321	*Charles IV. (the Fair) King of France.*	Dante Alighieri, *Po. ob.*
1327	**Edward III.** King of England.	
1328	*Philip VI. (of Valois) King of France.*	Castruc. Castracani, *ob.*
——	☾ Orchanes or Urchan Emperor of the Turks.	

A. D.		*Illustrious Persons.*
1329	DAVID II. King of Scotland. — Randolph Earl Murray Regent.	1330 Mortimer Earl of March, *ob.*
1331	The Teutonic Knights settle in Prussia.	
1332	Edward Baliol, assisted by Edward III., is crowned at Scone King of Scots, but is soon driven out of the kingdom.	
1333	Casimir III. (the Great) King of Poland.	
——	The Scots defeated by Edward III. at Halidoun hill, July 19.	
1334	¶ Pope Benedict XII.	
1340	Gunpowder invented by Swartz, a Monk of Cologne.	
——	Oil painting said to be invented by John Van Eyk.	
1341	John V. (Palæologus) Emperor of the East.	
——	John Cantacuzenos, his tutor, usurps the throne.	
1342	¶ Pope Clement VI.	
1346	Battle of Crecy, won by Edward III. and the Black Prince over the French.	
——	Battle of Durham, in which David II. of Scotland is taken prisoner.	1345 Abulfeda, *Hist. ob.*
1347	CHARLES IV. Emperor of Germany.	
——	Nicola Rienzi assumes the government of Rome.	Richard of Bury, *ob.*
1350	The Order of the Garter instituted by Edward III.	1350 Jo. & Math. Villani, *Hist. fl.*
——	Peter (the Cruel) King of Castile.	
1351	*John II. King of France.*	
1352	¶ Pope Innocent VI.	
——	The Turks first enter Europe.	
1356	The Battle of Poictiers, in which John II. King of France is taken prisoner, and afterwards brought to London.	1360 Ph. Villani, *Hist. fl.*
1359	☽ Amurath I. Emperor of the Turks.	
1362	¶ Pope Urban V.	
——	The law pleadings in England changed from French to English.	1363 Edward Baliol, *ob.*
1364	*Charles V. King of France.*	
1370	¶ Pope Gregory XI.	
——	ROBERT II. King of Scotland.	1374 F. Petrarch, *Po. ob.*
1377	The Popes return from Avignon to Rome.	1376 G. Poccace, *Po. ob.*
——	**Richard** II. King of England.	— Ed. Black Pr. *ob.*
——	Wickliffe's doctrines propagated in England.	
1378	The schism of the double Popes at Rome and Avignon begins, and continues thirty-eight years.	1377 Ralph Higden, *Hist. ob.*
——	¶ Pope Urban VI. Rome.	

A. D.		*Illustrious Persons.*
1378	¶ Pope Clement VII. Avignon.	
——	WENCESLAUS Emperor of Germany, deposed in 1400.	
1380	*Charles VI. King of France.*	Mat. of Westm. *Hist. ob.*
——	Tamerlane invades and subdues Chorassan.	—Bert du Guesclin, *ob.*
1381	Wat Tyler's and Jack Straw's insurrection in England.	
——	Peace between Venice and Genoa.	
——	Bills of Exchange first used in England.	
1383	Cannon first used by the English in the defence of Calais.	
1384	Philip the Bold, Duke of Burgundy, succeeds to the Earldom of Flanders.	1385 Wickliff, *ob.*
1386	Tamerlane subdues Georgia.	
1388	Battle of Otterburn between Percy (Hotspur) and Douglas.	
1389	¶ Pope Boniface IX.	
1390	ROBERT III. King of Scotland.	
——	☾ Bajazet I. Emperor of the Turks.	
1391	Manuel II. (Palæologus) Emperor of the East.	
1392	The Cape of Good Hope discovered by the Portuguese.	
1394	The Jews banished from France by Charles VI.	
——	¶ Pope Benedict XIII.	
1395	Sigismund King of Hungary defeated by Bajazet I.	1395 Henry Knyghton, *Hist. ob.*
1398	Tamerlane subdues part of Hindostan, and takes Delhy.	
1399	Henry IV. King of England.	
1400		Froissart, *Hist. ob.*
1402	Bajazet is taken prisoner by Tamerlane in the battle of Angoria.	Sir John Gower, *Poet, ob.*
——	☾ Solyman I. Emperor of the Turks.	
——	Battle of Homildon Hill, in which the Scots are defeated.	1400 Geoff. Chaucer, *Poet, ob.*
1403	Battle of Shrewsbury in which Hotspur is killed.	
1404	¶ Pope Innocent VII.	
1405	Death of Tamerlane.	
1406	JAMES I. King of Scotland.	1408 Owen Glendour, *ob.*
——	¶ Pope Gregory XII.	
1409	Council of Pisa, where Pope Gregory is deposed.	1409 Nich. Flamel, *Alch. ob.*
——	☾ Musa Emperor of the Turks.	

A. D.		*Illustrious Persons.*
1409	¶ Pope Alexander V.	
1410	Josse (Marquis of Brandenburgh) Emperor of Germany.	
——	¶ Pope John XXIII.	
1411	Sigismund Emperor of Germany.	
——	The University of St. Andrew's in Scotland founded.	
1413	Henry V. King of England.	
1414	Council of Constance, in which two Popes were deposed, and the Popedom remained vacant near three years.	
——	☾ Mahomet I. Emperor of the Turks.	
1415	Henry V. defeats the French at Agincourt.	1415 Em. Chrysoloras, *ob.*
——	John Huss condemned by the Council of Constance for heresy, and burnt.	
1416	Jerome of Prague condemned by the same Council, and burnt.	
1417	¶ Pope Martin V.	
——	Paper first made from linen rags.	1419 P. Ailly Theol. *ob.*
1420	The island of Madeira discovered by the Portuguese.	Alain Chartier, *Poet, ob.*
1421	John VI. (Palæologus) Emperor of the East.	
1422	Amurath besieges Constantinople.	1422 T. Walsingham, *Hist. ob.*
——	☾ Amurath II. Emperor of the Turks.	
——	Henry VI. King of England.	
——	*Charles VII. King of France.*	
——	James I. King of Scots liberated from captivity by the English.	1424 Earl of Buchan, *Const. of France, ob.*
1425	The Court of Session in Scotland instituted by James I.	
1428	Joan of Arc, the Maid of Orleans, compels the English to raise the siege of that town.	Monstrelet, *Hist. fl.*
1431	¶ Pope Eugene IV.	Joan d'Arc, *ob.*
——	Rise of the Medici family at Florence.	
1436	Paris recovered by the French from the English.	
1437	James II. King of Scotland.	
1438	Albert II. Emperor of Germany.	
1439	Re-union of the Greek and Latin churches.	Scanderberg, *fl.*
——	The Pragmatic Sanction established in France.	
1440	Frederick III. Emperor of Germany.	Thomas Walsingham, *Hist. fl.*
——	Invention of the art of printing by John Guttenberg at Strasburg.	
1444	Ladislaus King of Hungary killed in battle with the Turks.	1443 L. Aretin, *ob.*

A. D.		*Illustrious Persons.*
1445	Constantine (Palæologus) Emperor of the East.	
1446	Great inundation of the sea in Holland.	
1447	¶ Pope Nicholas V.	1447 Humph. D. of Gloucester, *ob.*
——	Rise of the Sforza family at Milan.	
1450	☾ Mahomet II. Emperor of the Turks.	
1453	Constantinople taken by the Turks.—EXTINCTION OF THE EASTERN EMPIRE OF THE ROMANS.	
——	End of the English government in France.	
1455	¶ Pope Calixtus III.	
——	Battle of St. Alban's, where Henry VI. is taken prisoner by the Duke of York.	
1458	¶ Pope Pius II. Æneas Sylvius.	
1459	The art of engraving on copper invented.	1459 Poggio of Florence, *ob.*
1460	JAMES III. King of Scotland.	
——	Battle of Wakefield, where the Duke of York is killed.	John Fust, *fl.*
1461	**Edward** King of England.	Rowley, *Po. of Brist. fl.*
——	*Lewis XI. King of France.*	1464 Cosmo de Medici, *ob.*
——	Battle of Touton, in which the party of Lancaster is defeated.	1465 Laur. Valla, *ob.*
1468	The Orkney and Shetland islands given to James III. of Scotland, as the dowry of Christiern of Denmark's daughter.	— Æn. Sylvius, *ob.*
1470	Henry VI. restored to the throne of England.	1470 Regiomontanus, *ob.*
1471	Battle of Barnet, where Warwick is killed.—Battle of Tewkesbury, where the Lancasterians are totally defeated.	
——	Edward IV. restored. — Prince Edward of Lancaster basely murdered by Clarence and Gloucester. — Death of Henry VI.	1471 Th. a Kempis, *ob.*
——	¶ Pope Sixtus IV.	
1474	The Cape de Verd islands discovered by the Portuguese.	
1475	Edward IV. invades France.—Peace of Pacquigni purchased by the French.	
1478	The conspiracy of the Pazzi against the Medici at Florence suppressed. The authority of Lorenzo de Medici established.	1478 Theod. Gaza, *ob.*
1479	Ferdinand and Isabella unite the kingdoms of Arragon and Castile.	
——	Russia freed from subjection to the Tartars by John.	1181 Philelphus, *ob.* B. Platina, *Hist. ob.*
1481	☾ Bajazet II. Emperor of the Turks.	
1483	*Charles VIII. King of France.*	

A. D.		*Illustrious Persons.*
1483	**Edward V.** King of England.—Richard Duke of Gloucester Protector.	
—	Edward V. and his brother murdered.	
—	**Richard III.** King of England.	
1484	¶ Pope Innocent VIII.	
1485	Battle of Bosworth, in which Richard III. is killed.	Picus Mirandola, *fl.*
—	**Henry VII.** King of England, first of the house of Tudor. — Union of the houses of York and Lancaster.	Pomponius Lætus, *Hist. fl.* Alex. ab Alexandro, *Hist. fl.*
1488	JAMES IV. King of Scotland.	1490 Boiardo, *Poet, ob.*
1491	Granada taken by Ferdinand and Isabella. — End of the kingdom of the Moors in Spain.	Chalcondiles, *Hist. fl.* 1491 Annio de Vertibo, *ob.*
1492	¶ Pope Alexander VI. (Borgia.)	
—	Hispaniola and Cuba discovered by Christopher Columbus.	1492 W. Caxton, *Printer, ob.*
1493	Maximilian I. Emperor of Germany.	Lorenzo de Medici, *ob.*
1494	Expedition of Charles VIII. into Naples.	Politian, *ob.*
—	Algebra first known in Europe.	
—	America discovered by Columbus.	
1497	The Portuguese under Vasco de Gama, double the Cape of Good Hope, and sail to the East Indies.	
1498	*Lewis XII. King of France.*	
—	Savanarola burnt by Pope Alexander VI. for preaching against the vices of the clergy.	1499 Marcillus Ficinus, *ob.*
1499	Lewis XII. takes possession of the Milanese.	
—	Sebastian Cabot lands in North America.	
1500		
—	Brazil discovered by the Portuguese.	
—	Maximilian divides Germany into six circles, and adds four more in 1512.	1502 Peter Martyr, *ob.*
1503	¶ Pope Pius III.	1503 Jov. Pontanus, *ob.*
—	¶ Pope Julius II.	
—	Battle of Cerizoles, in which the French lose Naples.	
1504	Philip I. King of Spain.——1506. Jane his Queen.	1504 P. Beroaldus, *Hist. ob.*
1507	Madagascar discovered by the Portuguese.	
1508	League of Cambray against the Venetians.	1507 Cæsar Borgia, *ob.*
1509	**Henry VIII.** King of England.	1509 Phil. de Comines, *Hist. ob.*
—	Battle of Agnadello, May 14.	
1511	Cuba conquered by the Spaniards.	
—	☾ Selim I. Emperor of the Turks.	

A. D.		*Illustrious Persons.*
1512	The French defeat the Venetians in the battle of Ravenna.	1512 Gaston de Foix, *ob.* Rob. Fabian, *Hist. ob.*
1513	Battle of Flodden, fatal to the Scots, Sept. 11.	1513 Aldus Manutius, *ob.*
——	The English defeat the French in the battle of the Spurs.	
——	JAMES V. King of Scotland.	Fabian, *Hist. fl.*
——	¶ Pope Leo X.	
1515	*Francis I. King of France.*	Coel. Rhodigin. *Gram. fl.*
——	Battle of Marignan, in which the French defeat the Swiss.	
1516	Charles I. (Emperor Charles V.) King of Spain.	1516 Bap. Mantuanus, *Poet, ob.*
——	Barbarossa seizes the kingdom of Algiers.	
1517	The Reformation in Germany begun by Luther.	Card. Ximenes, *ob.*
——	The Turks put an end to the reign of the Ma-malukes in Egypt.	
1518	Leo X. condemns Luther's doctrines.	Card. Adrian, *ob.*
1519	Charles V. Emperor of Germany.	
——	Magellan explores the South Seas.	
1520	☾ Solyman II. (the Magnificent) Emperor of the Turks.	
——	Sweden and Denmark united.	1520 Raphael Urb. *Painter, ob.*
——	Massacre of Stockholm by Christiern II. and Arch-bishop Trollo.	— H. Boece, *Hist. ob.* — Hen. Stephen, sen. *Pr. ob.*
1521	¶ Pope Adrian VI.	
——	Gustavus Vasa King of Sweden.	— Leon da Vinci, *Painter, ob.*
——	Cortez completes the conquest of Mexico.	
1522	The first voyage round the world performed by a ship of Magellan's squadron.	1522 Gawin Douglas, *Poet, ob.*
——	Rhodes taken by the Turks.	
1523	Solyman the Magnificent takes Belgrade.	1525 Alex. Ab. Alex. *ob.* — P. Melancthon, *ob.*
——	¶ Pope Clement VII.	
1524	Sweden and Denmark embrace the Protestant faith.	1524 T. Linacre, *Med. ob.*
1525	Battle of Pavia, in which Francis I. is taken pri-soner by Charles V.	1525 Jo. Pistor, *Theol. fl.*
1526	Treaty of Madrid between Charles V. and Francis I. when the latter is set at liberty.	
1527	Rome taken and plundered by Charles V.	1527 Con. de Bourb. *ob.* — J. Froben, *Pr. ob.*
——	Pizarro and Dalmagro invade the empire of Peru.	
1528	Revolution of Genoa by Andrea Doria.	1528 A. Durer, *Paint. ob.*
——	Gustavus Ericson crowned King of Sweden.	
1529	Diet of Spires against the Huguenots, then first termed Protestants.	1529 Machiavel, *Hist. ob.*

A.D.		*Illustrious Persons.*
1529	Peace of Cambray, August 5.	
1530	The league of Smalcald between the Protestants.	1530 B. Donatus, *Cr. ob.*
1531	Michael Servetus burnt for heresy at Geneva.	— A. Alciat, *Poet, ob.*
1532	The treaty of Nuremberg, August 2.	— Sannazarius, *Poet, ob.*
——	The Court of Session in Scotland new-modelled by James V.	1531 Zuinglius, *ob.* — Occolampadius, *ob.*
1534	The Reformation takes place in England.	1533 Lud. Ariosto, *Poet, ob.*
——	¶ Pope Paul III.	
——	Barbarossa seizes the kingdom of Tunis.	1534 Corn. Agripp. *ob.*
——	Jack of Leyden heads the Anabaptists at Munster.	1535 Sir Th. More, *ob.* M. Accursius, *Phil. fl.*
1535	The society of the Jesuits instituted by Ignatius Loyola.	1536 Erasmus, *ob.* 1540 Budæus *Jctus, ob.*
——	Expedition of Charles V. against Tunis.	— Æobanus Hessus, *Po. ob.*
1538	Treaty of Nice between Charles V. and Francis I.	
——	The Bible in English appointed to be read in the Churches of England.	— Guicciardini, *Hist. ob.* Jo. Major, *Hist. ob.*
1540	Dissolution of the monasteries in England by Henry VIII.	Jo. Bale, *Biog. fl.* 1541 Paracelsus, *Phys. ob.*
1542	Defeat of the Scots at Solway moss.	1542 Alb. Pighius, *Math. ob.*
——	MARY Queen of Scotland.	1543 Copernicus, *Phil. ob.*
1544	The French defeat the troops of Charles V. in the battle of Cerizoles. The treaty of Crépi.	1544 L. Baïf, *Poet, ob.* — Cl. Marot, *Poet, ob.*
1545	The Council of Trent begins, which continued eighteen years.	— Ol. Magnus, *Hist. ob.* 1545 Bellai, *Poet, ob.*
——	The Scots defeat the English at Ancram Muir.	1546 P. Jovius, *Hist. ob.*
1546	Cardinal Beaton, Archbishop of St. Andrew's, assassinated.	— Ed. Hall, *Hist. ob.* — Mart. Luther, *ob.*
1547	Fiesco's conspiracy at Genoa.	1547 Lud. Vives, *ob.*
——	The battle of Mulberg, in which the Protestants are defeated, and the Elector of Saxony taken prisoner.	— Card. Bembo, *ob.* — Peutinger, *Geog. ob.* — Vatablus, *Gram. ob.*
——	Edward VI. King of England.	— Card. Sadoletus, *ob.*
——	*Henry II. King of France.*	
——	Battle of Pinkey in Scotland, where the Scots are defeated by the English, December 10.	
1548	The Interim granted by Charles V. to the Protestants.	
1550	¶ Pope Julius III.	1550 Trissino, *Poet, ob.*
1552	The treaty of Passau between Charles V. and the Elector of Saxony, for the establishment of Lutheranism.	— Sleidan, *Hist. ob.* 1551 J. Leland, *Ant. ob.* Mart. Bucer, *ob.*

A. D.		Illustrious Persons.
1553	**Mary** Queen of England.	1553 Fr. Rabelais, *ob.*
——	Lady Jane Grey beheaded.	— J. Dubravius, *Hist. ob.*
1555	¶ Pope Marcellus II.	— Fracastorius, *Poet, ob.*
——	¶ Pope Paul IV.	1555 Polyd. Virgil, *ob.*
——	Many Bishops burnt in England by Mary.	— Agricola, *Med. ob.*
1556	FERDINAND I. Emperor of Germany.	1556 Ign. Loyola, *ob.*
——	Philip II. King of Spain.	— Pet. Aretin, *ob.*
1557	Philip II. defeats the French at St. Quintin.	1557 Sir Jo. Cheke, *ob.*
1558	Calais taken by the French from the English.	1558 J. P. Valerianus, *Poet, ob.*
——	**Elizabeth** Queen of England.	
——	The French defeated in the battle of Gravelines.	— J. C. Scaliger, *ob.*
——	Mary Queen of Scots married to the Dauphin.	— Aldrovandus, *ob.*
1559	¶ Pope Pius IV.	1559 R. Stephens, *Print. ob.*
——	*Francis II. King of France.*	
——	Treaty of Catteau Cambresis.	
1560	*Charles IX. King of France.*	
——	Conspiracy of Amboise, formed by the party of Condé against that of Guise.—Beginning of the civil wars in France.	
——	The Reformation completed in Scotland by John Knox.	1560 Mich. de l'Hospital Chan. *fl.*
——	The Papal authority abolished by Parliament in Scotland.	
1561	Mary Queen of Scots arrives in Scotland from France.	1563 Seb. Castalio, *ob.*
1562	Battle of Dreux.—Victory of the Guises over Condé.	— Roger Ascham, *ob.* 1564 Jo. Calvin, *Theol. ob.*
1564	MAXIMILIAN II. Emperor of Germany.	— Michael Angelo, *Painter, ob.*
——	Siege of Malta by the Turks, who are defeated.	
1566	¶ Pope Pius VI.	1565 Con. Gesner, *Phil. ob.*
——	Revolt of the Netherlands from Philip II.	
——	Murder of David Rizzio in Scotland.	— Adrian Turnebus, *ob.*
——	☽ Selim II. Emperor of the Turks.	1566 Hier. Vida, *Po. ob.*
1567	The Duke of Alva sent by Philip to the Netherlands.	— Han. Caro, *Poet, ob.* — Castlevetro, *Crit. ob.*
——	King Henry Darnley murdered, February 9.	1567 Anne de Montmorency, Const. of France, *ob.*
——	JAMES VI. King of Scotland.	
1568	Mary Queen of Scots flies into England for protection.	
——	Philip II. exterminates the Moors from Spain.	
——	Puts to death his son Don Carlos.	
1569	The Earl of Murray, Regent of Scotland, assassinated by Hamilton.	1569 Bern. Tasso, *Po.*

A. D.		*Illustrious Persons.*
1569	The battles of Jarnac and Moncontour in France, in which the Protestants are defeated.	
1571	Naval victory at Lepanto, where the Turks are defeated by Don John of Austria.	
1572	¶ Pope Gregory XIII.	1572 John Knox, *ob.*
——	The massacre of St. Bartholomew, August 24.	— Adm. Coligni, *ob.*
1573	Hærlem taken by the Spaniards.	— H. Cardan, *ob.*
1574	*Henry III. King of France.*	— Peter Ramus, *ob.*
——	Socinius propagates his opinions.	1574 Paul Manutius, *ob.*
——	Don Sebastian King of Portugal invades Africa.	
——	Memorable siege of Leyden, raised by the Prince of Orange, and the Admiral Boissot.	
1575	☽ Amurath III. Emperor of the Turks.	
1576	RODOLPHUS II. Emperor of Germany.	1576 Titian Vecelli, *Painter, ob.*
——	The league in France formed against the Protestants.	P. And. Matheolus, *Med. fl.*
1578	The Spaniards under Don John of Austria defeated in the battle of Rimenant.	
1579	Commencement of the republic of Holland by the union of Utrecht. — Mæstricht taken by the Spaniards.	1579 Camoens, *Poet, ob.*
——	Battle of Alcagar, the Portuguese under Don Sebastion defeated by Muley Moluck.	
1580	Philip II. takes possession of Portugal.	1580 Palladio, *Arch. fl.*
——	The world circumnavigated by Sir Francis Drake.	1581 Ja. Chrichton, *Adm. ob.*
1582	The Raid of Ruthven in Scotland. — James VI. seized by the Earl of Gowrie.	— Osorius, *ob.*
——	The New Style introduced into Italy by Pope Gregory XIII. the 5th of October being counted the 15th.	1582 G. Buchanan, *ob.*
1584	William I. Prince of Orange murdered at Delft.	
——	Virginia discovered by Sir Walter Rawleigh.	
——	Embassy from four kings of Japan to Philip II.	
1585	¶ Pope Sixtus V.	1585 Bodinus, *ob.*
——	Schah Abbas the Great King of Persia.	— Car. Sigonius, *ob.*
1587	Mary Queen of Scots beheaded at Fotheringay.	— Ronsard, *Poet, ob.*
1588	Destruction of the Spanish Armada by the English.	1586 Sir Ph. Sydney, *ob.* 1588 Paul Veronese,
1589	Henry III. of France murdered by Jacques Clement.	*Painter, ob.* M. Frobisher, *Nav. fl.*
——	*Henry IV. (the Great) King of France.*	
1590	The battle of Ivry, which ruins the League in France.	1590 J. Cujas *Sotus, ob.* — Du Bartas, *Poet, ob.*
——	¶ Pope Urban VII.	

A. D.		*Illustrious Persons.*
1590	¶ Pope Gregory XIV.	
1591	The University of Dublin erected.	1591 Pancirollus, *ob.*
——	¶ Pope Innocent IX.	B. Brissonius *Ictus, ob.*
1592	Presbyterian church-government established in Scotland.	1592 M. Montagne, *ob.*
——	¶ Pope Clement VIII.	
1594	The Bank of England incorporated.	1595 Acidalius, *Crit. ob.*
——	☾ Mahomet III. Emperor of the Turks.	— Torq. Tasso, *Po. ob.*
1596	Cadiz taken by the English.	1596 Ald. Manutius, jun. *ob.*
1598	Edict of Nantes, tolerating the Protestants in France.	Sir Hen. Drake, *ob.*
——	Peace of Vervins concluded between France and Spain.	1597 Jan. Dousa, jun. *ob.* 1598 Hen. Stephens, jun. *ob.*
——	Philip III. King of Spain.	
——	Tyrone's rebellion in Ireland.	— E. Spencer, *Poet, ob.*
1600		R. Hooker, *D. D. ob.*
——	Gowrie's conspiracy in Scotland.	
——	The Earl of Essex beheaded.	
——	The English East-India Company established.	1601 Tycho Brache, *Phil. ob.*
1602	Decimal Arithmetic invented at Bruges.	
1603	**James** I. (VI. of Scotland) King of Great Britain.	1604 Janus Dousa, sen. *ob.*
——	Union of the Crowns of England and Scotland.	Kepler, *Phil. fl.*
——	☾ Achmet I. Emperor of the Turks.	Masenius, *Po. fl.*
1605	The Gunpowder-plot discovered.	John Stow, *Ant. ob.*
——	¶ Pope Paul V.	Galileo, *Phil. fl.*
1608	Galileo discovers the Satellites of Jupiter.	Theodore Beza, *ob.*
——	Arminius propagates his opinions.	1606 Justus Lipsius, *ob.*
1610	Henry IV. of France murdered by Ravaillac.	1607 Card. Baronius, *ob.*
——	*Lewis XIII. King of France.*	1609 Jos. Scaliger, *ob.*
——	The Moors expelled from Spain by Philip III.	— An. Caracci, *Paint. ob.*
——	Hudson's Bay discovered.	1610 Boccalini, *fl.*
1611	Baronets first created in England by James I.	1614 Is. Casaubon, *ob.*
1612	MATTHIAS Emperor of Germany.	1615 Et. Pasquier, *ob.*
1614	Logarithms invented by Napier of Merchiston.	1616 W. Shakspeare, *ob.*
1616	Settlement of Virginia by Sir Walter Rawleigh.	1617 Napier of Merchiston, *ob.*
1617	☾ Mustapha Emperor of the Turks.	— De Thou, *Hist. ob.*
1618	The Synod of Dort in Holland.	— Aquillon, *Math. ob.*
1619	Discovery of the circulation of the blood by Dr. Harvey.	1618 Card. Perron, *ob.*
——	FERDINAND II. Emperor of Germany.	— Sir Walter Rawleigh, *ob.*
——	Vanini burnt at Thoulouse for atheism.	Mig. Cervantes, *ob.*
1620	The battle of Prague, by which the Elector Palatine loses his Electorate.	Vossius, *Crit. fl.*

A. D.		*Illustrious Persons.*
1620	The English make a settlement at Madras.	Meursius, *Crit. fl.*
——	Navarre united to France.	
——	☽ Othman II. Emperor of the Turks.	
1621	Philip IV. King of Spain.	1621 Card. Bellarmin, *ob.*
——	Batavia built and settled by the Dutch.	
——	¶ Pope Gregory XV.	
1622	☽ Amurath IV. Emperor of the Turks.	
1623	¶ Pope Urban VIII.	1623 Will. Camden, *Hist. ob.*
——	Institution of the Knights of Nova Scotia by James I.	— Paul Sarpi, *ob.*
1625	**Charles I.** King of Great Britain.	1624 Marianna, *Hist. ob.*
——	The island of Barbadoes planted; — the first English settlement in the West Indies.	
——	Knights Baronets first created in Scotland.	
1626	League of the Protestant Princes against the Emperor.	1627 Jan. Gruterus, *ob.* 1628 Malherbe, *Po. ob.*
1632	Gustavus Adolphus killed in the battle of Lutzen.	Gui. Rheni. *Paint. fl.*
——	Christina Queen of Sweden.	Rubens, *Paint. fl.*
1635	The French Academy instituted.	Bacon Ld. Verulam, *ob.*
1637	Ferdinand III. Emperor of Germany.	Fam. Strada, *Hist. fl.*
1638	Bagdat taken by the Turks.	1630 Kepler, *ob.*
——	The Solemn League and Covenant established in Scotland.	1631 H. C. Davila, *Hist. ob.*
1640	John Duke of Braganza recovers the kingdom of Portugal.	1632 T. Allan, *Math. ob.* 1635 Lope de Vega, *Poet, ob.*
1641	The Irish Rebellion, and Massacre of the Protestants, October 23.	Alex. Tassoni, *Po. ob.*
——	☽ Ibrahim Emperor of the Turks.	1631 Ben. Johnson, *ob.*
——	The Earl of Strafford beheaded.	1640 Achelini, *Po. ob.*
1642	Beginning of the Civil War in England. — The battle of Edgehill, October 23.	— Ph. Massinger, *Po. ob.* 1641 Max. Duke of Sully, *ob.*
1643	*Lewis XIV. King of France.*	
——	Anne of Austria Regent of France.	— A. Vandyke, *ob.*
——	Archbishop Laud impeached by the Commons, tried and beheaded.	— H. Spelman, *ob.* 1642 Galileo, *Phil. ob.*
1644	¶ Pope Innocent X.	— Card. Richelieu, *ob.*
——	Revolution in China by the Tartars.	1643 Jo. Hampden, *ob.*
1645	Charles I. defeated in the battle of Naseby.	1644 Bentivoglio, *Hist. ob.*
1646	Sir Robert Spottiswoode President of the Session beheaded, 20th January.	Rob. Baker, *Hist. ob.* — Chillingworth, *ob.*
1648	The peace of Westphalia. — The civil war of the Fronde at Paris.	— Van Helmont, *ob.* 1645 H. Grotius, *ob.*
1649	Charles I. of England beheaded.	1647 Quevedo, *Po. ob.*
——	The Commonwealth of England begins.	1648 Voiture, *ob.* 1649 W. Drummond, *Poet and Hist. ob.*

A. D.		*Illustrious Persons.*
1649	☾ Mahomet IV. Emperor of the Turks.	1649 F. Strada, *ob.*
1650	The Marquis of Montrose put to death.	1650 Jo. Ger. Vossius, *ob.*
——	Battle of Dunbar. — Covenanters defeated by Cromwell.	Des Cartes, *Phil. ob.* Inigo Jones, *Arch. ob.*
1651	The battle of Worcester won by Cromwell.	
1652	The first war between the English and Dutch.	1652 Petavius, *Hist. ob.*
——	Dark or Mirk Monday, 30th March.	
1653	The Dutch fleet defeated by Monk, 30 ships taken and Van Tromp killed, July 30th.	1653 Salamasius, *ob.*
1654	End of the Commonwealth of England. — Oliver Cromwell Lord Protector.	1654 Balzac, *ob.* John Selden, *Ant. ob.*
——	The English under Admiral Penn, take possession of Jamaica.	
——	Christian Queen of Sweden resigns the Crown to Charles X.	1655 Gassendi, *Phil. ob.*
1655	¶ Pope Alexander VII.	— Archbp. Usher, *ob.*
1658	Dunkirk delivered to the English.	— Dan. Heinsius, *Po. ob.*
——	Leopold I. Emperor of Germany.	1656 Nic. Poussin, *Paint. ob.*
——	Richard Cromwell Lord Protector of England.	
1659	The peace of the Pyrenees between France and Spain.	1657 W. Harvey, *ob.* — Adm. Blake, *ob.*
1660	**Charles II.** King of Great Britain. — Restoration of Monarchy.	1658 Casp. Barthius, *ob.* Scarron, *Poet, ob.*
——	The peace of Oliva between Sweden, Denmark, and Poland.	Spinosa, *Phil. fl.* Pascal, *ob.*
1661	The Marquis of Argyle beheaded for Treason, 27th May.	1660 H. Hammond, *ob.* 1661 Card. Mazarin, *ob.*
1662	The Royal Society instituted in England.	— Don L. de Haro, *ob.*
——	Dunkirk sold back to the French.	Fermat, *Math. fl.*
1663	Carolina planted.	
——	The French Academy of Inscriptions instituted.	
1664	The second Dutch war begins.	
1665	Charles II. King of Spain.	
——	Great plague in London.	
1666	Great fire of London.	
——	The Academy of Sciences instituted in France.	
——	Sabatei Levi, in Turkey, pretends to be the Messiah.	
——	The Scots Covenanters defeated on Pentland hills.	
1667	The peace of Breda, which confirms to the English Pennsylvania, New York, and New Jersey.	1667 Ab. Cowley, *Po. ob.* Sam. Bochart, *ob.*
——	¶ Pope Clement IX.	
——	The Spanish Netherlands invaded by Lewis XIV.	
1668	The peace of Aix-la-Chapelle.	1669 Sir John Denham, *Poet, ob.*

A. D.	
1669	The island of Candia taken by the Turks.
1670	¶ Pope Clement X.
1672	Lewis XIV. conquers great part of Holland.
——	The De Witts put to death in Holland.
1674	John Sobieski King of Poland.
1676	¶ Pope Innocent XI.
——	Carolina planted by the English.
1678	The peace of Nimeguen, July 31.
——	The Habeas Corpus Act passed in England.
1679	The Long Parliament of Charles II. dissolved.
——	The Scots Covenanters defeated at Bothwell Bridge by the Duke of Monmouth, June 22d.
1682	Peter the Great Czar of Muscovy.
1683	Execution of Lord Russel, 21st July.
——	Execution of Algernon Sydney, 7th December.
——	The siege of Vienna by the Turks, raised by John Sobieski.
1685	**James** II. King of Great Britain.
——	Revocation of the edict of Nantes by Lewis XIV.
——	Duke of Monmouth beheaded.
1686	The Newtonian philosophy first published in England.
——	The league of Augsburgh against France.
1687	☾ Soliman III. Emperor of the Turks.
1688	Revolution in Britain.—King James abdicates the throne, December 23.
1689	**William** and **Mary** King and Queen of Great Britain.
——	Episcopacy abolished in Scotland by King William.
——	Battle of Gillicrankie. — The King's troops defeated. — The Viscount of Dundee slain, July 16. O. S.
——	¶ Pope Alexander VIII.
1690	Battle of the Boyne, July 1.
1691	¶ Pope Innocent XII.
	☾ Achmet II. Emperor of the Turks.
1692	Battle of La Hogue, May 19.
——	The massacre of Glencoe in Scotland, Jan. 31. O. S.
——	Battle of Steenkirk. — King William defeated by Luxemburgh, July 24.
——	Hanover made the ninth Electorate of the Empire.
1695	Namur taken by King William, June 25.
——	☾ Mustapha II. Emperor of the Turks.

Illustrious Persons.

1671 Mot. le Vayer, *ob.*
— Gronovius, *Ant. ob.*
— Molier, *Poet, ob.*
1672 Chanc. Segnier, *ob.*
1674 John Milton, *ob.*
— Labbadie, *ob.*
Ed. E. of Clarendon, *ob.*
1675 Turenne, *ob.*
1676 De Ruyter, *ob.*
— Sir Mat. Hale, *ob.*
1678 Spinosa, *ob.*
1679 Th. Hobbes, *ob.*
— D. de Rochefoucault, *ob.*
— Card. de Retz, *ob.*
— Mezeray, *Hist. ob.*
1680 T. Bartolin, *ob.*
— Sam. Butler, *ob.*
— T. Otway, *Po. ob.*
— Mad. Bourignon, *ob.*
— Athan. Kircher, *ob.*
1681 Monteuculi, *ob.*
Sir J. Marsham, *Chron. ob.*
1682 Sir T. Brown, *Phys. ob.*
1683 J. B. Colbert, *ob.*
1684 Pet. Corneille, *ob.*
1686 Maimbourgh, *Hist. ob.*
Otho Gueric, *Math. ob.*
1687 Ed. Waller, *Po. ob.*
— Rapin, *Poet, ob.*
1688 Du Cange, *ob.*
— R. Cudworth, *ob.*
— D. of Ormond, *ob.*
C. le Brun, *Paint. ob.*
G. Menage, *ob.*
1691 R. Boyle, *Phil. ob.*
— Sir G. Mackenzie, *ob.*
— Nic. Heinsius, *ob.*
1694 S. Puffendorf, *ob.*
Huygens, *Phil. ob.*
1695 La Fontaine, *ob.*
— Dr. Busby, *ob.*

A. D.		*Illustrious Persons.*
1697	Peace of Ryswick concluded, September 11.	1696 La Bruyere, *ob.*
——	Peter the Great gains a signal victory over the Turks, and takes Asoph.	Racine, *ob.*
——	Charles XII. King of Sweden.	
1699	Peace of Carlovitz concluded, January 26.	1699 Bp. Stillingfleet, *ob.*
——	The Scots attempt a Colony at Darien.	Sir Will. Temple, *ob.*
1700		
——	Charles XII. begins his first campaign, takes Copenhagen.	
——	Philip V. King of Spain.	
——	¶ Pope Clement XI.	
1701	Death of James II. at St. Germain's.	1701 John Dryden, *ob.*
1702	**Anne** Queen of Great Britain. — War against France and Spain.	E. of Sunderland, *ob.*
——	The English and Dutch destroy the French fleet at Vigo.	
——	The French send Colonies to the Mississippi.	
1703	Gibraltar taken by Admiral Rooke, July 24.	
——	☾ Achmet III. Emperor of the Turks.	1703 J. G. Grævius, *ob.*
1704	Battle of Blenheim. — The French defeated by Marlborough and Prince Eugene, August 2.	St. Evremond, *Poet, ob.* Dr. J. Wallis, *ob.*
——	Peter the Great founds St. Petersburgh.	1704 John Locke, *ob.*
1705	The English take Barcelona.	
——	Joseph I. Emperor of Germany.	1705 Jo. Ray, *Nat. ob.*
1706	Battle of Ramilies. — The French defeated by the Duke of Marlborough, May 12.	1706 Bossuet, *Bp. ob.*
——	The treaty of Union between England and Scotland, signed July 22.	— John Evelyn, *ob.* — P. Bayle, *ob.*
1707	The battle of Almanza. — The French and Spaniards, under the Duke of Berwick, defeat the Allies, April 14.	— Ch. E. of Dorset, *ob.* 1707 M. Vauban, *ob.* Geo. Farquhar, *Po. ob.*
1708	Battle of Oudenarde. — The French defeated by Marlborough and Eugene, June 30.	
——	Minorca taken by General Stanhope, September 18.	
1709	Battle of Pultowa. — Charles XII. defeated by Czar Peter, June 30.	
——	Battle of Malplaquet. — The French defeated by Marlborough and Eugene, September 11.	
1711	Charles VI. Emperor of Germany.	
1713	The peace of Utrecht, signed March 30.	1711 N. Boileau, *ob.*
1714	**George** I. Elector of Hanover, King of Great Britain.	1712 Cassini, *Phil. ob.* Ash. Cooper Earl of Shaftesbury, *ob.*
1715	*Lewis XV. King of France.*	1715 Fenelon, *Abp. ob.*

A. D.	
1715	The Rebellion in Scotland. — Battle of Sheriffmuir, November 13.
1716	Prince Eugene defeats the Turks at Peterwaradin.
1718	Charles XII. of Sweden killed at the siege of Frederickshall.
1720	The Missisippi Scheme in France projected by John Law, breaks up 23d May.
——	In the same year the South Sea Scheme breaks up in England, September.
1721	¶ Pope Innocent XIII.
1724	¶ Pope Benedict XIII.
1725	Death of Peter the Great Czar of Muscovy.—Catherine Empress.
1726	Great earthquake at Palermo, August 21.
1727	**George II.** King of Great Britain.
——	Treaty of Copenhagen between Great Britain and Denmark.
——	The Spaniards besiege Gibraltar, May 20.
1728	Treaty between Great Britain and Holland, May 27.
——	The Congress of Soissons, June 14.
1729	Treaty of Seville between Great Britain, France, and Spain, November 9.
1730	¶ Pope Clement XII.
——	Christian VI. King of Denmark.
——	The Persians under Kouli-Khan defeat the Turks.
——	☾ Mahomet V. Emperor of the Turks.
1731	Treaty between Great Britain, the Emperor, and King of Spain, July 22.
1733	The Jesuits expelled from Paraguay, January.
——	Frederick III. King of Poland.
1734	Commercial Treaty between Great Britain and Russia, December 2.
1735	The French defeat the Imperialists in Italy.
1736	Peace between Spain and Austria.
——	Kouli-Khan (Nadir-Schah) proclaimed King of Persia, September 29.
1737	War declared between the Emperor and the Turks, July 2.
1738	The Russians invade the Crimea.
1739	Nadir-Schah conquers the greatest part of the Mogul Empire.
——	Treaty between Great Britain and Denmark.

Illustrious Persons.

1715 Bp. Burnet, *ob.*
— Malbranche, *Phil. ob.*
Leibnitz, *Phil. ob.*
1718 Mad. Dacier, *ob.*
1719 M. Maintenon, *ob.*
— Jos. Addison, *ob.*
— Flamstead, *ob.*
1720 Heinsius, *Grand Pensionary, ob.*
1721 Mat. Prior, *ob.*
— Huet, *ob.*
1722 Dacier, *ob.*
— C. Fleury, *Hist. ob.*
1723 Sir Chr. Wren, *ob.*
— H. Prideaux, *ob.*
— Basnage, *Hist. ob.*
1724 W. Wollaston, *ob.*
1725 Kneller, *ob.*
Sir Isaac Newton, *ob.*
1729 Dr. Sa. Clarke, *ob.*
— Sir Rich. Steele, *ob.*
— W. Congreve, *Po. ob.*
— John Law, *Mississippi, ob.*
1730 L. Eachard, *Hist. ob.*
1731 Dr. Atterbury, *Bp. of Rochester, ob.*
1731 Dan. Defoe, *ob.*
1732 Jo. Gay, *Poet, ob.*
1733 Corelli, *Mus. ob.*
1734 Dr. J. Arbuthnot, *ob.*
— Duke of Berwick, *ob.*
1735 Dr. Will. Derham, *ob.*
— Bp. Tanner, *Ant. ob.*
— Vertot, *Hist. ob.*
1736 J. Le Clerc, *ob.*
— Lord Lansdown, *Poet, ob.*
1737 Elis. Rowe, *ob.*
— Ld. Chancellor Talbot, *ob.*
1738 Dr. Boerhaave, *ob.*

A. D.		*Illustrious Persons.*
1739	Peace between the Emperor and the Turks, August 21.	1739 Dr. N. Sanderson, *Math. ob.*
——	Peace between Russia and the Turks, November.	
——	Portobello taken by Admiral Vernon, November 21.	
1740	Frederick III. (the Great) King of Prussia.	1740 Eph. Chambers, *ob.*
——	¶ Pope Benedict XIV.	— T. Tickell, *Poet, ob.*
——	War between Poland and Hungary.	1741 Pet. Burman, *ob.*
1741	War between Russia and Sweden.	— B. Montfaucon, *Ant. ob.*
——	Carthagena taken by Admiral Vernon, June 19.	
——	The Prussians masters of Silesia, October 20.	— Ch. Rollin, *Hist. ob.*
1742	Peace between Austria and Prussia, June 11.	— R Sanderson, *Ant. ob.*
——	Defensive alliance between Great Britain and Prussia, November 18.	— Card. Polignac, *ob.* 1742 Dr. Edm. Halley, *Math. ob.*
——	Charles VII. (of Bavaria) Emperor of Germany.	— Dr. Rich. Bentley, *ob.*
1743	Defensive alliance between Great Britain and Russia, February.	— Dr. Boulter, *Archbishop of Armagh, ob.*
——	War in Germany between the British, Hungarians, French, and Austrians.	— L. Theobald, *ob.* 1743 Jo. Ozell, *ob.*
——	The French defeated by the Allies at Dettingen, June 6.	— Fr. Peck, *Ant. ob.* — Card. de Fleury, *ob.*
1744	War declared in Great Britain against France, March 31.	— J. G. Keysler, *Ant. ob.* — Hya. Rigaud, *Paint. ob.*
——	The King of Prussia takes Prague.	
——	Commodore Anson completes his voyage round the world.	1744 Al. Pope, *Po. ob.* — Roger Gale, *Ant. ob.* 1745 Dr. Jon. Swift, *ob.*
1745	Francis I. (of Lorraine) Emperor of Germany.	
——	Quadruple alliance between Britain, Austria, Holland, and Poland, January 8.	
——	The allied army defeated by the French at Fontenoy, April 30.	
——	Louisburgh and Cape Breton taken by the British troops, June 6.	
——	The Rebellion breaks out in Scotland, July.	
——	Defeat of the King's forces by the Rebels at Prestonpans, September 21.	
——	Treaty of Dresden between Prussia, Poland, Austria, and Saxony, December 25.	
1746	Defeat of the King's forces by the Rebels at Falkirk, January 17.	1746 Col. Maclaurin, *Math. ob.*
——	Ferdinand VI. King of Spain.	— Barratier, *Phil. ob.*
——	Frederic V. King of Denmark.	— T. Southern, *Po. ob.*
——	Count Saxe takes Brussels and Antwerp.	

A. D.	
1746	Victory of Culloden, which puts an end to the Rebellion in Scotland, April 16.
——	Lords Balmerino and Kilmarnock beheaded, August 18.
——	Count Saxe defeats the allies at Raucoux, Oct. 11.
——	Dreadful earthquake at Lima, October 17.
1747	Lord Lovat beheaded, April 9.
——	The French defeat the allied army at Lafeldt, July 2.
——	Bergen-op-zoom taken by the French, September 5.
——	The French Fleet defeated by Admiral Hawke, October 14.
——	Kouli-Khan murdered — Revolution in Persia.
1748	Peace of Aix-la-Chapelle between Great Britain, France, Spain, Austria, Sardinia, and Holland, October 7.
1749	League between the Pope, Venetians, &c. against the Algerines, &c.
1750	Joseph King of Portugal.
——	Academy of Sciences founded at Stockholm.
——	Commercial treaty between Great Britain and Spain, October 5.
1751	Adolphus of Holstein King of Sweden.
——	Peace between Spain and Portugal.
1752	New Style introduced in Britain, September 2. reckoned 14.
1753	The British Museum established in Montague house.
1754	Great eruption of Ætna.
——	Great earthquake at Constantinople and Cairo, September 2.
——	☋ Othman III. Emperor of the Turks.
1755	Defeat of General Braddock near Fort du Quesne, July 9.
——	Lisbon destroyed by an earthquake, November 1.
1756	War declared between Great Britain and France, May 18.
——	Surrender of Minorca by Blakeney, June 28.
1757	Damiens attempts to assassinate Lewis XV.
——	King of Prussia defeats the Austrians at Reichenberg and Prague.
——	Count Dauhn repulses the King of Prussia at Kolin, June 18.
——	Verden and Bremen taken by the French, August.
——	Convention of Closterseven, September 8.

Illustrious Persons.

1747 Barbeyrac, *Pol. Phil. ob.*
— Th. Chubbe, *ob.*
— Dr. J. J. Dillenius, *Bot. ob.*
— M. Mattaire, *ob.*
— Abp. Potter, *ob.*
— E. Holdsworth, *Crit. ob.*
— President Forbes, *ob.*
1748 Ja. Thomson, *Poet, ob.*
— Dr. Is. Watts, *ob.*
— Dr. Fr. Hutcheson, *ob.*
— Dr. Geo. Cheyne, *ob.*
— Rev. C. Pitt, *Poet, ob.*
1749 T. Odell, *Dram. ob.*
— N. Freret, *Chron. ob.*
1750 Dr. Conyers Middleton, *ob.*
— And. Baxter, *ob.*
— Aaron Hill, *Poet, ob.*
Apost. Zeno, *Dram. ob.*
1751 H. Lord Bolingbroke, *ob.*
— Dr. Alex. Monro, sen. *ob.*
— Dr. Doddridge, *ob.*
1752 Will. Cheselden, *Anat. ob.*
— Will. Whiston, *Math. ob.*
— Card. Alberoni, *ob.*
1753 Berkeley, *Bp. of Cloyne, ob.*
— Sir Hans Sloane, ob.
1754 Dr. Rich. Mead, *ob.*
— Henry Fielding, *ob.*
— De Moivre, *Math. ob.*
— H. Pelham, *ob.*
— J. Gibbs, *Arch. ob.*

A.D.	
1757	The Prussians defeat the French and Austrians at Rosbach, November 5.
——	The King of Prussia master of Silesia, December 21.
——	☾ Mustapha III. Emperor of the Turks.
1758	¶ Pope Clement XIII.
——	Senegal taken by the English, May 1.
——	Cape Breton taken by the English, June 17.
——	The English repulsed at Ticonderoga, July 8.
——	The British troops take Louisburg, July 27.
——	Count Dauhn defeats the King of Prussia at Hochkirken, October 14.
——	The British Troops take Fort du Quesne, November 25.
——	Goree taken by Keppel, December 29.
1759	Guadaloupe surrendered to the English, May 1.
——	The French defeated by the allied army at Minden, August 1.
——	French fleet defeated by Boscawen off Gibraltar, August 18.
——	Charles III. King of Spain.
——	The Jesuits expelled from Portugal, September 3.
——	General Wolfe takes Quebec, September 17.
——	French fleet defeated by Hawke off Bellisle, November 20.
1760	Montreal and Canada taken by the British troops, September 8.
——	**George III.** King of Great Britain, October 25.
——	The King of Prussia defeats the Austrians at Torgau, November 3.
1761	Pondicherry taken by the English, January 15.
1762	Martinico surrendered to the English, February 4.
——	Peter III. Emperor of Russia.
——	The Jesuits banished from France, August.
——	Havannah taken by the English, August 12.
——	Peace between Great Britain and France at Fontainbleau, November 3.
1763	Peace between Great Britain, France, and Spain, at Paris, February 10.
——	Catherine II. Empress of Russia.
1764	Stanislaus II. King of Poland.
——	Sujah Dowla defeated by Munro at Buxar, October 23.

Illustrious Persons.
1755 M. de Montesquieu, *ob.*
— Dr. R. Rawlinson, *ob.*
1756 Gilbert West, *ob.*
1757 Colley Cibber, *Com. ob.*
— Dom. Calmet, *Benedict, ob.*
— W. Maitland, *Hist. ob.*
— M. de Fontenelle, *Poet, ob.*
— Dr. Herring, *Abp. of Canterbury, ob.*
1758 Rev. J. Harvey, *ob.*
— L. Heister, *Anat. ob.*
— B. Hoadley, *Dram. ob.*
1759 G. Fr. Handel, *Mus. ob.*
1760 Count Zinzendorf, *ob.*
1761 Dr. T. Sherlock, *ob.*
— Bishop Hoadley, *ob.*
— Sam. Richardson, *Nov. ob.*
— Dr. J. Leland, *ob.*
— Stephen Hales, *ob.*
1762 Dr. Ja. Bradley, *Astr. ob.*
— Geminiani, *Mus. ob.*
— Lady M. Wortley Montague, *ob.*
1763 N. Hooke, *Hist. ob.*
— W. Shenstone, *Po. ob.*
1764 R. Dodsley, *Po. ob.*
— Ja. Anderson, *Hist. ob.*
— Ch. Churchill *Po. ob.*

A. D.	
1764	Byron's discoveries in the South Seas.
1765	Joseph II. Emperor of Germany.
1766	American stamp act repealed, March 18.
——	The Jesuits expelled from Bohemia and Denmark.
——	Christian VII. King of Denmark.
1767	The Jesuits expelled from Spain, Genoa, and Venice.
——	Wallis and Carteret's discoveries in the South Seas.
1768	Royal Academy of Arts established at London.
——	The Jesuits expelled from Naples, Malta, and Parma.
——	Bougainville's discoveries in the South Seas.
1769	¶ Pope Clement IV.
——	Cook's first discoveries in the South Seas.
——	Corsica taken by the French, June 13.
1770	Earthquake at St. Domingo.
1771	Gustavus III. King of Sweden.
1772	Revolution in Sweden, August 19.
——	Poland dismembered by Russia, Prussia, and Austria.
1773	Cook's second voyage and discoveries.
——	The society of the Jesuits suppressed by the Pope's bull, August 25.
1774	*Lewis XVI. King of France.*
——	☽ Abdhul-Achmet Emperor of the Turks.
——	American war commenced, November 15.
1775	Battle of Bunker's Hill in America, June 7.
1776	¶ Pope Pius VI.
——	The Americans declare their independence, July 4.
1777	Mary Queen of Portugal.
——	Philadelphia taken by the British troops, October 3.
——	Surrender of General Burgoyne at Saratoga, October 7.
1778	League between the French and Americans, October 30.
1779	Peace between the Imperialists and Prussians, May 13.
——	Great eruption of Vesuvius, August 8.
——	Siege of Gibraltar by the Spaniards, July.
——	Captain Cook killed at Owhyhee.
1780	Sir G. Rodney defeats the Spanish fleet near Cape Vincent, January 16.
——	Charlestown surrenders to the British, May 12.

Illustrious Persons.
1765 Dr. Ed. Young, *Poet, ob.*
— Dr. Stukeley, *Ant. ob.*
— R. Simson, *Math. ob.*
— Da. Mallet, *Poet, ob.*
1766 Dr. T. Birch, *Hist. ob.*
— Dr. Sam. Chandler, *ob.*
— Dr. Ro. Whytt, *Phys. ob.*
1768 Laur. Sterne, *ob.*
— Dr. T. Secker, *Abp. of Canterbury, ob.*
— Ja. Short, *Opt. ob.*
— Abbé Winkleman, *ob.*
1769 R. Smith, *Math. ob.*
1770 Abbé Nollet, *Phil. ob.*
—W. Guthrie, *Hist. ob.*
—T. Chatterton, *Po. ob.*
—Dr. J. Jortin, *ob.*
—Dr. Mark Akenside, *ob.*
—Dr. Tobias Smollet, *ob.*
1771 Th. Gray, *Poet, ob.*
1773 Ph. Earl of Chesterfield, *ob.*
—G. Ld. Lyttleton, *ob.*
1774 M. de la Condamine, *ob.*
—Ol. Goldsmith, *Po. ob.*
—Zach. Pearce, *Bp. of Rochester, ob.*
— Hen. Baker, *Nat. Phil. ob.*
1775 Dr. J. Hawksworth, *ob.*
—Dr. John Campbell, *Hist. ob.*
1776 Da. Hume, *Hist. ob.*
—Ja. Fergusson, *Math. ob.*
1777 S. Foote, *Com. ob.*
—W. Bowyer, *Prin. ob.*
—Haller, *Phys. ob.*
1778 Jo. Gregory, M.D. *ob.*

A. D.	
1780	Riots in London on account of the Popish bill, June 2.
——	Lord Cornwallis defeats the Americans at Cambden, August 16.
——	War declared between Great Britain and Holland, December 20.
1781	The Americans defeated at Guilford by Lord Cornwallis.
——	Surrender of the British troops to the Americans and French at Yorktown, October 18.
1782	Sir G. Rodney defeats the French fleet off Dominica, April 12.
——	Sir Edw. Hughes defeats the French fleet under Suffrein in the East Indies, Feb. 17.
1783	Peace between Great Britain, France, and Spain, and the Independence of America declared, January 20.
1784	Peace between Great Britain and Holland, May 24.
1785	Treaty of alliance between Austria, France, and Holland, November 9.
1786	Frederick IV. King of Prussia.
——	Commercial treaty between England and France, September 26.
1787	The Assembly of the Notables convened at Paris, February 22.
——	Mr. Hastings impeached for misdemeanours in the government of India, May 21.
1788	Prince Charles Edward died at Rome, January 31.
——	The Parliament of Paris remonstrates against the use of lettres de cachet, March 16.
——	Defensive alliance between England and Holland, April 25.
——	The Regency-bill debated by the House of Commons, December 10.
1789	The abolition of the slave-trade proposed in Parliament.
——	☾ Selim III. Emperor of the Turks, April.
——	The Assembly of the States-General opened at Paris, May 5. — Beginning of the French Revolution.
——	They form themselves into the National Assembly, June 16.

Illustrious Persons.
1778 Voltaire, *ob.*
—Dr. Linnæus, *Nat. ob.*
—J. J. Rousseau, *ob.*
1779 Dav. Garrick, *Com. ob.*
E. of Chatham, *ob.*
—W. Warburton, *Bp. of Gloucester, ob.*
—Dr. J. Armstrong, *Poet, ob.*
1780 Sir Will. Blackstone, *ob.*
—Dr. Gaubius, *ob.*
—Sir Ja. Steuart, *ob.*
1782 T. Newton, *Bp. of Bristol, ob.*
—Metastasio, *Poet, ob.*
—Hen. Home Lord Kames, *ob.*
—Dr. Will. Hunter, *ob.*
1783 D'Alembert, *Phil. ob.*
—Euler, *Math. ob.*
1784 Dr. S. Johnson, *ob.*
—W. Whitehead, *Poet, Laureat, ob.*
1785 R. Burn, LL. D. *ob.*
—Rich. Glover, *Po. ob.*
1786 Jonas Hanway, *ob.*
1787 Bp. Lowth, *ob.*
—Soame Jenyns, *ob.*
—Dr. Edm. Law, *Bp. of Carlisle, ob.*
—F. Sydenham, *ob.*
—D. Jo. Rotheram, *ob.*
—Dr. Abel, *Mus. ob.*
—Ld. Pres. Dundas, *ob.*
—Ja. Stuart, F.R.S. *ob.*
—T. Gainsborough, *Paint. ob.*
—T. Sheridan, *ob.*
—M. Savary, *Voy. ob.*
—Count de Buffon, *ob.*
1789 W. J. Mickle, *Poet, ob.*

A. D.	
1789	The Bastile taken, and the Governor massacred, July 14.
—	The Princes of the blood and chief Noblesse leave France, July.
—	The King of France brought to Paris, accepts the Declaration of the Rights of Man, October 6.
—	Decree for dividing France into eighty-three departments, October 30.
1790	Monastic establishments suppressed in France, February 13.
—	Titles of Nobility suppressed in France, February 24.
—	War commenced in India with Tippoo Sultan, May 1.
—	General confederation at Paris in the Champs de Mars, July 14.
—	Leopold II. Emperor of Germany.
1791	The King of France, with his family, escape from Paris, but are intercepted at Varennes, June 22.
—	Riots at Birmingham, July 14.
—	The King of France accepts the constitution, September 14.
1792	Francis II. Emperor of Germany.
—	Gustavus III. King of Sweden assassinated by Ankerstroom, March 29.
—	Gustavus IV. King of Sweden. — Duke of Sudermania Regent in his minority.
—	An armed mob forces the Thuilleries, and insults the King of France, June 20.
—	The Duke of Brunswick, with the combined armies of Austria and Prussia, arrives at Coblentz, July 3.
—	The National Assembly decrees the country in danger, July 11.
—	Petion and the community of Paris demand the King's deposition, August 3.
—	The Thuilleries again attacked. — The King and Queen of France take refuge in the National Assembly. — The Swiss guards massacred by the populace, August 10.
—	The Royal authority suspended by the National Assembly, August 10.

Illustrious Persons.

1787 Rev. Jo. Logan, *Poet, ob.*
— J. Ledyard, *Trav. ob.*
— Sir Jo. Hawkins, *ob.*
— Marq. de Mirabeau, *ob.*
— Vernet, *Paint. ob.*
— Ld. Pres. Miller, *ob.*
1790 Dr. Will. Cullen, *Phys. ob.*
— Dr. Adam Smith, *ob.*
— Dr. Benj. Franklin, *ob.*
— John Howard, *ob.*
— Rev. T. Warton, *Poet Laureat, ob.*
— General Roy, *ob.*
— Dr. W. Henry, *Hist. ob.*
1791 Rev. Rich. Price, LL.D. *ob.*
— Dr. T. Blacklock, *Poet, ob.*
— Rev. Jo. Wesley, *ob.*
— Fr. Grose, *Ant. ob.*
— Cat. Macaulay, *Hist. ob.*
— Prof. Michaelis, *ob.*
1792 Dr. Born, *Miner. ob.*
— Sir Josh. Reynolds, *Painter, ob.*
— Will. Tytler, *ob.*
— Dr. Horne, *Bishop of Norwich, ob.*
— Ro. Adam, *Arch. ob.*
— John E. of Bute, *ob.*
— Sir Rich. Arkwright, *ob.*
— Sir Robert Strange, *Engraver, ob.*
— Lord Hales, *ob.*
— John Smeaton, *Engr. ob.*

A. D.		*Illustrious Persons.*
1792	The Royal Family imprisoned in the Temple, August 14.	
—	A dreadful massacre of the state-prisoners at Paris, September, 2, 3.	
—	The National Convention is constituted, the King deposed, and France declared a Republic, September 21.	
—	The Republic decrees fraternity and assistance to all nations in the recovery of their liberty, November 19.	
—	Savoy incorporated with the French Republic, November 27.	
—	The Convention decrees the Trial of Lewis XVI. December 2.	
—	Lewis XVI. brought to trial, answers each article of accusation, December 14.	
1793	Lewis XVI. condemned to death by a majority of five voices, January 17.	1793 Dr. Will. Robertson, *Hist. ob.*
—	Lewis XVI. beheaded, January 21.	— Mrs. Griffiths, *Nov. ob.*
—	The Alien-bill passed in the British House of Commons, January 24.	— Will. Earl of Mansfield, *ob.*
—	Russia declares war against France, January 31.	— Dr. T. Mudge, *Optic ob.*
—	The French Convention declares war against England and Holland, February 1.	— Will. Hudson, F. R. S. *ob.*
—	Lyons declares for Lewis XVII. February 28.	— Ld. Gardenstone, *ob.*
—	Decree for the French people rising in a mass, August 20.	— Dr. J. Thomas, *Bp. of Rochester, ob.*
—	Surrender of Toulon to Lord Hood's fleet, August 28.	— D. Serres, *Paint. ob.*
—	Marie Antoinette Queen of France condemned to death by the Convention, and beheaded the same day, October 15.	— Baron de Tott, *ob.*
—	Brissot and the chiefs of the Girondist party guillotined.	— Rich. Tickell, *ob.*
—	Robespierre triumphant, November.	— Lord Romney, F.R.S. *ob.*
—	The English evacuate Toulon, December 19.	— John Hunter, M.D. *ob.*
1794	The Princess Elizabeth of France beheaded, May 12.	1794 Edw. Gibbon, *Hist. ob.*
—	The Habeas Corpus act suspended, May.	— Earl of Camden, *ob.*
—	Lord Howe defeats the French fleet off Ushant, June 1.	— Dr. Woodward, *Bp. of Cloyne, ob.*
—	Robespierre, with his chief partizans, guillotined, July 28.	— Dr. Jo. Roebuck, *ob.*
—	Battle of Warsaw.—The Polish liberties destroyed, Oct. 12.	— Charles Pigott, *ob.*
—	The Jacobin Club suppressed, October 18.	— Earl Bathurst, *ob.*

A. D.		*Illustrious Persons.*
1794	Trials of Hardy, Tooke, Thelwall, &c. for treason, November.	1794 Geo. Colman, *Dram. ob.* — Card. de Bernis, *ob.*
1795	The Stadtholder takes refuge in England.—Holland over run by the French, January.	— James Bruee, *Trav. ob.* 1795 Sir Will. Jones, *ob.*
——	Mr. Hastings' trial ended, by his acquittal, April 22.	— Rev. Dr. Al. Gerard, *ob.*
——	Lyons bombarded, laid in ruins, and all its loyal inhabitants massacred, May.	— James Boswell, *ob.*
——	Lewis XVII. died in prison at Paris, June 8.	— Will. Smellie, *ob.*
——	The Cape of Good Hope taken by the British forces under Sir J. H. Craig, Gen. Clarke, and Sir G. K. Elphinstone, September 16.	
——	Belgium incorporated with the French Republic, September 30.	
——	Great disorders in Ireland, October, November, December.	
——	Stanislaus II. resigns the Crown of Poland.—The kingdom divided between Russia, Austria, and Prussia, November 25.	
——	Ceylon taken by the British under Gen. J. Stewart, and Com. Ranier, Feb. 15.	
1796	The Count d'Artois, with his suite, take up their residence at Edinburgh, January 6.	1796 Rob. Burns, *Poet, ob.*
——	The East India Company votes an indemnification and recompence to Mr. Hastings, January.	— Jo. Anderson, F.R.S. *ob.* — Rev. Dr. G. Campbell, *ob.*
——	The French over run and plunder Italy.	— Rev. Dr. Ja. Fordyce, *ob.*
——	Lord Malmesbury negociates for peace at Paris, October 28.	— Dr. Th. Reid, *ob.* — Henry Flood, M. P. *ob.*
——	Death of Catherine II.—Paul Emperor of Russia, November 17.	— Ja. Macpherson, *ob.*
——	Lord Malmesbury quits Paris, December 20.	
1797	A mutiny of the British fleet at Portsmouth and the Nore suppressed, May, June.	1797 Edm. Burke, *ob.* — Wal. Minto, *Math. ob.*
——	The Scots Militia bill passed, July.	— Rev. Will. Mason, *Poet, ob.*
——	Negotiations at Lisle for a peace broken off.	— Dr. James Hutton, *ob.*
——	The Dutch fleet beaten and captured by Lord Duncan, October 11.	— Hor. Walpole, *Earl of Orford, ob.*
1798	The Papal government suppressed by the French.—The Pope quits Rome, Feb. 26.	— Dr. Tissot, *ob.* — Jos. Wright, *Paint. ob.* — Dr. Rich. Farmer, *ob.*
——	Ireland in open rebellion, May, June, &c.	— Dr. Enfield, *ob.*
——	Lord Nelson totally defeats the French fleet in the battle of the Nile, August 1.	— C. Macklin, *Com. ob.* 1798 Duke de Nivernois, *ob.*
——	The Swiss finally defeated, and their independence abolished, September 19.	— Dan. Webb, *ob.* — Dr. Edw. Waring, *ob.* — J. Z. Holwell, *ob.*
——	The French fleet defeated by Sir J. B. Warren, October 12.	— P. F. Suhm, *ob.*

A. D.		*Illustrious Persons.*
1799	A union with Ireland proposed in the British Parliament, January 22.	1798 W. Wale, F.R.S. *ob.* — J. Reinh. Foster, *ob.*
—	The motion rejected by the Commons of Ireland, January 24.	— J. H. Artzenius, *ob.* — J. P. Pancton, *ob.*
—	Seringapatam taken by General Harris and Sir David Baird, and Tippoo Sultan killed, May 4.	— Rev. C. M. Cracherode, *ob.* — L. Galvani, *ob.*
—	The French under Bonaparte defeated by Sir Sydney Smith at Acre, May 21.	— Will. Seward, F.R.S. *ob.* — C. Borda, *ob.* — Rev. Jos. Tucker, *ob.*
—	Expedition of the British troops against Holland, August.	1799 Will. Melmoth, *ob.* — Lord Monboddo, *ob.*
—	Death of Pope Pius VI., September.	— Dr. Ch. Morton, F.R.S. *ob.*
—	The British troops evacuate Holland, November.	— Jos. Strange, LL.D. *ob.*
—	A revolution at Paris. — Bonaparte declared First Consul, December 25.	— Jos. Towers, LL.D. *ob.* — Dr. Joseph Black, *ob.*
1800		
—	Vote of the Irish House of Commons agreeing to the Union with Ireland, February 5. — Similar Vote of the House of Lords, 17.	1800 Bry. Edwards, *ob.* — Hon. Daines Barrington, *ob.*
—	Bonaparte defeats the Austrians in the battle of Marengo in Italy, June 14.	— Will. Cruickshank, *Anat. ob.* — J. B. le Roy, *ob.*
—	Armistice between the French and Austrians in Germany, July 15.	— C. Girtanner, *ob.* — W. Cowper, *Poet, ob.*
—	The new Pope, Pius VII., restored to his government by the Emperor, July 25.	— J. S. Montucla, *ob.* — Rev. Jos. Warton, *Poet, ob.*
—	Malta taken by the British forces, September 5.	— Dr. D. Lysons, *ob.*
1801	First meeting of the Imperial Parliament of Great Britain and Ireland, January.	— P. A. Guys, *ob.* — Rev. Will. Tasker, *ob.*
—	Mr. Pitt resigns, after being minister 18 years, February 9. — Mr. Addington Chancellor of the Exchequer.	— Dr. W. Brownrigg, *ob.* — M. Mallet du Pan, *ob.* — Rev. W. Thomas, *ob.* — J. Bapt. Munos, *ob.*
—	Battle of Alexandria. — The French defeated and Sir Ralph Abercrombie killed, March 21.	— Rev. Dr. H. Blair, *ob.* — M. de Guignes, *ob.* — Rev. Jas. Macnight, *ob.*
—	The Emperor Paul dethroned and put to death. — Alexander I. Emperor of Russia, March 23.	1801 Sir Geo. Staunton, *ob.* — Ro. Orme, *Hist. ob.*
—	Battle of Copenhagen. — The Danish fleet taken and destroyed by Lord Nelson, April 3.	— C. Lavater, *ob.* — T. Malton, *Math. ob.*
—	Taking of Cairo by the British troops, May 11.	— Dr. W. Heberden, *ob.*
—	Alexandria surrendered to the British troops, August 27.	— Rev. W. Drake, *ob.* — Prof. Jo. Millar, *ob.* — Gilb. Wakefield, *ob.*
—	Preliminaries of Peace signed between Great Britain and France, October 1.	
—	Savoy made a department of France, Nov. 19.	
1802	Mutiny in Admiral Mitchell's fleet in Bantry Bay, January 15.	1802 Arth. O'Leary, *ob.*
—	The Catholic religion re-established in France, March.	

A. D.		Illustrious Persons.
1802	The Definitive Treaty with France signed at Amiens, March 27.	1802 Earl of Clare, *ob.* — Welbore Ellis, *ob.*
——	Bonaparte elected Chief Consul for ten years, May.	— Ld. C. J. Kenyon, *ob.*
——	The Parliament dissolved, June 20.	— M. de Calonne, *ob.*
——	The King of Sardinia resigns his crown to his brother, July.	— Erasmus Darwin, M.D. *ob.*
——	Piedmont annexed to France, July.	— John Moore, M.D. *ob.*
——	Bonaparte declared Chief Consul for life, July.	
——	The Prince of Orange renounces the office of Stadtholder, August.	
——	Paswan Oglow submits to the Porte, November.	
——	A new Parliament meets. — Mr. Abbot elected Speaker of the Commons, November 16.	
——	Switzerland finally subdued by the French.	
1803	Execution of Colonel Despard for high treason, February.	1803 Earl of Bristol, *Bp. of Derby, ob.*
——	The militia of the United Kingdom called out and embodied, March.	— Dr. James Beattie, *ob.*
——	The Emperor of Germany ratifies the new organization of Germany, April.	— Dr. John Erskine, D.D. *ob.*
——	Dissolution of the Peace with France. — Lord Whitworth, ambassador, quits Paris, May.	— Joseph Priestley, LL.D. *ob.*
——	The French seize Hanover, June 4.	
——	Insurrection in Dublin. — Habeas Corpus suspended, and martial law proclaimed, July.	
——	Treaty between Great Britain and Sweden, August.	
	Defeat of Row Scindia and Berar Rajah at Ajunty pass by General Wellesley.	
——	The British troops enter Delhi, and the Great Mogul puts himself under protection of General Lake, September.	
1804	Murder of the Duke d'Enghien by order of Bonaparte, 15th March.	1804 Admiral Lord Duncan, *ob.*
——	Mr. Pitt resumes his situation as Prime Minister, 10th May.	— Rev. Rob. Potter, *ob.*
——	Bonaparte proclaimed Emperor of the French, 20th May.	
——	Dessalines in St. Domingo declares himself Emperor of Hayti, October.	
——	The Pope arrives at Fontainbleau, and has an interview with Bonaparte, November.	
1805	The Spaniards declare war against Great Britain, January.	1805 Earl of Roslyn, (*Ld. Chancellor*,) *ob.*
——	Union of the Genoese or Ligurian Republic with France declared, February.	— Prof. John Robison, LL.D. *ob.*
——	Bonaparte assumes the title of King of Italy, March.	— Arthur Murphy, Po *ob.*

A. D.		*Illustrious Persons.*
1805	Impeachment of Lord Melville, which terminated in his complete acquittal.	1805 Will. Paley, D.D. *ob.*
—	Defeat of the Spanish fleet by Sir Robert Calder, July.	— Jas. Currie, M.D. *ob.*
—	Lord Nelson defeats the fleets of France and Spain at Trafalgar. — Takes 20 sail, and is killed in the engagement, 21st October.	— Patrick Russel, M.D. *ob.* — John Clark, M.D. *ob.*
—	Sir R. Strachan takes four French ships of the line off Cape Ortegal, 4th November.	— Prof. J. F. Gmelin, *ob.*
—	The French defeat the Austro-Russian army at Austerlitz, December 2.	— M. Julien, *Sculp. ob.*
1806	Death of William Pitt, 23d January. — His debts discharged, and a statue decreed to his memory at the public expense.	1806 E. Edwards, *ob.* — Prof. And. Dalzel, *ob.*
—	Admiral Duckworth captures and destroys five French ships of the line, February 6.	
—	Louis Bonaparte proclaimed King of Holland, June 5.	
—	The House of Lords concurs with the Commons in the resolutions for abolishing the slave trade, June.	
—	Sir John Stuart defeats the French under Regnier at Maida in Calabria, July.	
—	Surrender of Buenos Ayres to General Beresford and Sir Home Popham, July.	
—	French squadron of five frigates defeated and captured by Sir Samuel Hood, September.	
—	Death of Charles James Fox, September 13.	
—	Rupture of the Negotiation for Peace with France, and return of Earl Lauderdale, October.	
—	Parliament dissolved, and a new one called, 24th October.	
—	The French defeat the Prussians in the great battle of Jena, which annihilates the Prussian power, October 14.	
—	Hamburgh occupied by the French under Mortier, November.	
—	Bonaparte declares the British Isles in a state of blockade, November.	
—	Recapture of Buenos Ayres by the Spaniards.	
—	The slave trade abolished by act of Parliament, February.	
1807	The King changes the ministry. — Mr. Perceval Chancellor of the Exchequer, March.	1807 N. Des Enfans, *ob.*
—	Parliament dissolved after a session only of four months, April.	— Geo. Atwood, *ob.*

A. D.		Illustrious Persons.
1807	Dantzic taken by the French, May.	1807 John Lockman, D.D. *ob.*
——	☾ Revolution at Constantinople, Sultan Selim deposed, and Sultan Mustapha proclaimed, May.	
——	Battle of Friedland.—Russians defeated by the French, June 14.	
——	Peace signed at Tilsit between France and Russia and Prussia, June.	
——	The Turkish fleet defeated in the Archipelago by the Russians, July.	
——	Copenhagen bombarded, and all the Danish fleet surrendered to the British, September 7, under Lord Cathcart and Admiral Gambier.	
——	The British evacuate South America, September.	
——	The British troops evacuate Egypt, October.	
——	The Prince Regent, and Royal Family of Portugal embark for Brazil, November 29.	
——	The island of Madeira surrenders to Great Britain in trust for Portugal, December.	
1808	The French prohibit all commerce with Great Britain, January.	1808 Bp. Rich. Hurd, *ob.*
		— Alex. Dalrymple, *Geog. ob.*
——	A new French nobility created by Bonaparte, January.	— Rev. John Brand, *ob.*
——	The French troops enter Rome, and seize the Pope's dominions, February.	— Dr. Alex. Hunter, M.D. *ob.*
——	Frederick VI. King of Denmark, March.	
——	Charles IV. abdicates the crown of Spain to his son Ferdinand VII., March 19.	
——	The French under Murat enter Madrid, March 23.	
——	British goods prohibited to be imported into Russia, April.	
——	Ferdinand VII. is compelled to renounce the throne of Spain, and is sent with the Royal Family to Paris.—Murat declared Lieutenant-General of Spain.—The Junta of Seville declares war against France, May.	
——	Joseph Bonaparte proclaimed King of Spain, June 16.	
——	The Portuguese arm against the French.—The Spanish patriots solicit aid from Great Britain, June.	
——	☾ The Grand Signior Mustapha deposed.—Mahomet VI. Turkish Emperor, July 28.	
——	Battle of Vimiera in Portugal.—The French under Junot defeated by Sir Ar. Wellesley, Aug. 21.	
——	Convention at Cintra, August 30.	

A. D.		Illustrious Persons.
1808	Conference held at Erfurth between the Russian Emperor Alexander and Bonaparte, Sept. 27.	
——	The Ports of Holland shut against Britain. November 27.	
1809	Battle of Corunna. — The French defeated. — Sir John Moore killed. — The British army re-embark for England, January 16.	1809 J. Von Muller, *Hist. ob.*
——	The Duke of York accused before the Commons of malversation in office as Commander-in-Chief. — Acquitted, March 17.	— Alex. Adam, LL.D. *ob.*
——	Gustavus King of Sweden deposed, March 13.	
——	The French fleet in Basque Roads destroyed by Lord Cochrane, April 12.	
——	The Austrians defeated by the French in the battles of Ratisbon and Eckmhul, April 20,—23.	
——	Senegal surrendered to the British, July 20.	
——	The battle of Talavera, in which the French are defeated by Sir Arthur Wellesley, July 27.	
——	The island of Walcheren taken by the British, July 31. — Evacuated, November 24.	
——	The 50th anniversary of the King's reign celebrated as a jubilee, October 25.	
——	The French fleet in the Mediterranean defeated by Lord Collingwood, October.	
1810	Bonaparte divorces the Empress Josephine, Jan. 16.	1810 W. Windham, *ob.*
——	Amboyna surrenders to a British squadron, Jan. 17.	— Admiral Ld. Collingwood, *ob.*
——	A French decree was issued, uniting Rome to France, Feb. 17.	— Bishop of Elphin, *ob.* — Queen of Prussia, *ob.*
——	Guadaloupe, the last of the French West India islands, surrenders to the British, March 5.	— Princess Amelia, *ob.*
——	Marriage of Bonaparte with Princess Maria Louisa of Austria, April 1.	— The Countess de Lille, (*wife of Louis XVIII.*) *ob.*
——	Sir Francis Burdett committed to the Tower for a libel on the House of Commons, April 5.	
——	An attempt made to assassinate the Duke of Cumberland. Sellis, the Duke's valet, found with his throat cut, May 31.	
——	Louis Bonaparte abdicates the throne of Holland, July 1.	
——	The isle of Bourbon taken by the British, July 8.	
——	Holland united to the French empire, July 9.	
——	Bernadotte chosen Crown Prince of Sweden, Aug. 21.	
——	Murat's army in Sicily defeated by General J. Campbell, September 18.	

A. D.		*Illustrious Persons.*
1810	Battle of Busaco. — The French defeated by Lord Wellington, September 27.	1810 Richard Porson, *ob.*
—	The first meeting of the Cortes in Spain since the usurpation of Bonaparte, Sept. 28.	
—	All British merchandise burnt in France, Oct. 19.	
—	His Majesty afflicted with a similar indisposition to that with which he was confined in 1788; and the same announced to both Houses of Parliament, Nov. 1.	
—	The deposed Gustavus of Sweden arrived in England, Nov. 14.	
—	Isle of France captured by General Abercromby and Admiral Bertie, Dec. 3.	
—	Lucien Bonaparte, and his family, arrived in this country from Malta, Dec. 13.	
1811	A deputation from the Lords and Commons waited on the Prince of Wales with an address, praying His Royal Highness to accept of the Regency, under certain limitations and restrictions, Jan. 10.	1811 Marquis of Romana, *ob.* — Duke of Albuquerque, *ob.*
—	Parliament opened by commission under the great seal, Jan. 15.	— Richard Cumberland, *Dramatic and Miscell. Writer*, *ob.*
—	Dreadful massacre in Cairo, in which about 1600 Mamelukes lost their lives, March 1.	— Lord Melville, *ob.*
—	Battle of Barrosa.—The French defeated by General Graham, March 5.	— Dr. Percy, *Bishop of Dromore*, *ob.*
—	The Empress of France, Maria-Louisa, delivered of a son, who is styled King of Rome, March 20.	— Prince George of Brunswick, *ob.* — Rev. James Grahame, *Poet*, *ob.*
—	Island of Anholt attacked by a Danish force of nearly 4000 men; but are repulsed by a British force of 150 men, under Capt. Maurice, leaving behind them 500 prisoners, March 27.	— John Leyden, M.D. *ob.* — Albanis Beaumont, *Trav. ob.*
—	Battle of Albuera. — The French under Soult defeated by General Beresford, with the loss of 9000 men, May 16.	— Admiral Sir Peter Parker, *ob.* — Matth. Raine, D.D. *ob.*
—	Eruption of a volcano in the sea, off the island of St. Michael, June.	— P. S. Pallas, M.D. *ob.* H. R. Reynolds, M.D. *ob.*
—	From the excessive heat in July, conflagrations took place in the forests of the Tyrol, by which 64 villages with 10,000 head of cattle were destroyed, and about 24,000 persons deprived of habitations.	Dr. Alex. Anderson, *ob.* C. B. Trye, F.R.S. *ob.* Field Marshal Count Walmoden Gimborn, *ob.*
—	The French island of Java capitulated to the British arms, August 8.	

A. D.		Illustrious Persons.
1811	Feudal rights abolished in Spain, Aug. 19.	
—	A comet appeared in England, Sept. 1.	
—	A fire at Emanuel-College, Cambridge: loss estimated at 20,000l., Oct. 14.	
—	Serious riots at Nottingham; journeymen weavers destroying articles of machinery which diminished the demand for labour, Nov. 16.	
—	Dreadful murders of two families (Marr and Williamson) near Ratcliffe Highway, Dec. 8. and 20.	
1812	Ciudad Rodrigo taken by storm, Jan. 19, by Lord Wellington, who is thereupon created Duke of Ciudad Rodrigo.	1812 General Sir J. H Craig, K. B. *ob.* — Edward Hasted, *Hist. ob.*
—	Mr. Walsh, a stock-broker and M. P. for Wotton-Basset, having been convicted of felony, in embezzling about 15,000l., the property of Sir Thomas Plomer, was expelled the House of Commons, March 5.	— Theoph. Jones, *Hist. ob.* — Admiral Sir Charles Cotton, *ob.*
—	Destructive earthquake at Caraccas, &c. March 26.	— M. Garthshore, M.D. *ob.*
—	Badajoz taken by storm, April 6.	
—	Dreadful eruption of a Volcanò at St. Vincent's, April 30.	— John Horne Tooke, *ob.*
—	The Right Hon. Spencer Perceval, Prime Minister of Great Britain, was assassinated in the House of Commons by John Bellingham, May 11.	— P. J. de Loutherburg, *ob.* — Robert Willan, M.D. *ob.*
—	Battle of Salamanca, July 22; on the receipt of the intelligence of which, there were general illuminations in London three successive nights.	— Right Hon. Spencer Perceval, *occ.* — Dr. Dampier, Bp. of Ely, *ob.*
—	Madrid captured by the British, Aug. 12.	
—	Smolensko entered by the French, Aug. 18.	— Edmond Malone, *ob.*
—	The siege of Cadiz raised by the French, Aug. 25.	— Rev. Lewis Dutens, *ob.*
—	Seville captured by the British, Aug. 27.	
—	Battle of Moskwa, Sept. 7.	— C. S. Sonnini, *ob.*
—	The French entered Moscow (three quarters of which, however, the Russians had previously destroyed by fire), Sept. 14.	— Admiral de Winter, *ob.* — Rd. Kirwan, F. R. S. *ob.*
—	The new Theatre Royal, Drury-lane, opened, Oct. 10.	— Dr. C. L. Willdenouw, *Bot. ob.*
—	General Brock defeated the American army in Canada, with the loss of his own life, Oct. 13.	— Christopher Gottlieb Heyne, *ob.*
—	The passage of the Berezyna cost the French 20,000 men, Nov. 28.	— Gen. Vallancey, *ob.*
—	The Prince Regent opened the Session of Parliament in person, Nov. 30.	— Edw. Jerningham, *ob.* — Prince Kaunitz, *ob.*
—	A 29th Bulletin of the French army, presenting a dreadful picture of their sufferings in the retreat from Russia, is dated Molodetchno, Dec. 3.	— Earl of Tyrconnel, *ob.*

A. D.		*Illustrious Persons.*
1812	Bonaparte arrives in Paris at midnight, Dec. 18.; having quitted his defeated and ruined army in Russia, and travelled *incog.*	1812 Baron G. A. Nolken, *ob.*
1813	A Declaration issued by the British Government respecting the causes and origin of the war with America, Jan. 9.	1813 A. F. Tytler, Lord Woodhouselee, *ob.*
——	A Concordat was signed at Fontainbleau, between Bonaparte and the Pope, Pius VII., Jan. 25.	— Count Zinzendorff, *ob.* — Duchess of Brunswick, *ob.*
——	Lewis XVIII. published an Address to the People of France, Feb. 1.	— N. Schiavonetti, *Engr. ob.*
——	The Russian troops entered Hamburgh, March 18.	
——	A treaty of alliance is formed between Russia and Prussia, March.	
——	Bonaparte again left Paris for the seat of war (having first formally constituted Maria-Louisa Empress Regent during his absence), April 15.	— General Fitzpatrick, *ob.* — Vice-Admiral Bentinck, *ob.*
——	A decree of the Spanish Cortes, for abolishing the Inquisition in Spain, was carried into effect, April.	
——	Battle of Lutzen, May 2.	
——	An official statement by the Russian Government estimates the loss of the French and their allies, in their invasion of Russia, as follows:—Killed, 24 Generals, 2000 Staff and other Officers, 204,400 rank and file; Prisoners, 43 Generals, 3441 Staff and other Officers, 233,222 rank and file; Taken, 1131 pieces of cannon, 63 pairs of colours and standards, one Marshal's Staff, about 100,000 muskets, and about 27,000 ammunition-waggons. The horrible sufferings of the French army in its disastrous retreat from Russia, by the effects of the frost, may be inferred from the statement, that in the three governments of Moscow, Witepsk, and Mohilow, 253,000 dead bodies, and in the city of Wilna and its environs 53,000, had been burned so early as the 27th of March.	— Prince of Smolensko, (General Kutusoff,) *ob.* April 28.
——	The Regency of Spain issued a Manifesto against the Pope's Nuncio in Spain (Peter Gravina, Archbishop of Nicea), who, by secret letters to the Bishops and Chapters, had endeavoured to excite them to refuse publishing in their respective dioceses the law abolishing the Inquisition, April 23.	

A. D.		Illustrious Persons.
1813	The newly-created law-officer, called Vice-Chancellor of Great Britain, Sir Thomas Plomer, sat for the first time at Lincoln's-Inn Hall, May 1.	1813 Right Hon. Isaac Corry, *ob.*
——	The Catholic Bill thrown out in a committee of the House of Commons, by a majority of *four;* the numbers being 247 for it; 251 against it. May 24.	
——	Account arrived of the occupation of Hamburg by the French, June 4.	
——	The great battle of Vittoria in Spain; in which the Marquis of Wellington totally defeated the French army under Joseph Bonaparte and Marshal Jourdan, with immense loss of men, 115 pieces of cannon, 415 waggons of ammunition, all their baggage, provisions, treasure, &c. and the French commander's baton of a Marshal of France, and drove them within the French frontiers, June 21. For this service the Marquis was made a Field Marshal in the British army.—London and Westminster were illuminated three successive nights.	
——	The foreign papers announced, that a conference had taken place between the Emperor of Russia, the King of Prussia, and the Crown Prince of Sweden, at Truchenberg, which lasted three days, Aug. 3.	
——	The Prince of Orange arrived with dispatches from Lord Wellington, announcing the total defeat of Marshal Soult, in Spain, with the loss of 15,000 men, and his retreat into France, Aug. 16.	
——	St. Sebastian taken by storm, Aug. 31.	
——	Great battles fought at Dresden; in which Gen. Moreau was mortally wounded, Sept. 4 and 5.	
——	Dispatches from Lord Wellington detailed his entrance into France, Oct. 18.	
——	Leipsic taken, Oct. 19. Bonaparte, who commanded in person, lost upwards of 80,000 men, and 180 pieces of cannon.	
——	Fall of Pampeluna, Oct. 31.	
——	Intelligence received of a counter-revolution in Holland, Nov. 21.	
	News arrived of the surrender of Dresden by Marshal St. Cyr, with 25,000 men, Nov. 25.	

A. D.		*Illustrious Persons.*
1814	A fair on the Thames, the surface being frozen over above the bridges. The whole space between Blackfriars and London Bridges was covered with spectators, Feb. 4.	1814 Sir Peter Parker killed in America.
——	The Custom-House in Thames-street destroyed by fire, Feb. 13.	Queen of Sicily died suddenly at Vienna.
——	Lord Wellington took possession of Bourdeaux, and the inhabitants declared for the Bourbons, March 8.	General Ross killed in America.
——	The Emperor of Russia at the head of his troops, and the allied Sovereigns, entered Paris; which was, by a capitulation, recommended to the generosity of the Allies, March 31.	Iffland, the German actor and dramatist, *ob.*
——	The Conservative Senate at Paris decreed, that Bonaparte had forfeited the right to rule in France, and released all persons from their oath of allegiance to him, April 3.	
——	Bonaparte renounced, for himself and his heirs, the thrones of France and Italy; and Paris invited the immediate return of the House of Bourbon, April 5.	
——	Lewis XVIII. made his public entry into London, from Hartwell, April 21.	
——	Bonaparte embarked at Frejus for Elba, April 28.	
——	The King of France made his entry into Paris, May 3.	
——	Peace between England and France signed at Paris, May 30.	
——	The Allied Sovereigns entered London, June 8.	
——	Lord Cochrane and others found guilty of a conspiracy to commit a fraud, June 9.	
——	The Allied Sovereigns, with the Prince Regent, went in great state to a banquet prepared by the Corporation of London at Guildhall, June 18.	
——	Lord Cochrane expelled the House of Commons, July 5.	
——	The House of Commons having voted 50,000*l.* a year to the Princess of Wales, she wrote a letter to the Speaker, declining to accept more than 35,000*l.*, July 5.	
——	Thanks of the House of Commons voted to the Army and Navy for their conduct during the late war, July 6.	

A. D.		Illustrious Persons.
1814	The Prince Regent and both Houses of Parliament went in grand procession to St. Paul's, to a public thanksgiving for the restoration of peace, July 7.	
——	A Grand Dinner given by the Corporation of London to the Duke of Wellington on his return to England, July 9.	
——	Lord Cochrane was again returned to Parliament for Westminster, without opposition, July 16.	
——	The restoration of the Inquisition proclaimed at Cadiz, in the name of Ferdinand VII., July 18.	
——	A grand Jubilee Festival, in celebration of the Peace, and the centenary of the accession of the House of Brunswick. A Temple of Concord and splendid fireworks exhibited in St. James's and the Green Parks. A representation of naval actions on the Serpentine River. A fair in Hyde Park, which continued twelve days, August 1.	
——	The Pope issued a Bull for re-establishing the order of the Jesuits, Aug. 7.	
——	The Princess of Wales embarked for the Continent, Aug. 9.	
——	Formal expulsion of Lord Cochrane from the Order of the Bath, Aug. 12.	
——	Union of Norway to Sweden, Aug. 14.	
——	Federal Compact of the Swiss Cantons concluded and accepted, Aug. 16.	
——	Peace proclaimed between France and Spain, Aug. 20.	
——	The city of Washington taken, and the public buildings destroyed, by the British Army under General Ross, Aug. 24.	
——	The Duke of Wellington presented to Lewis XVIIIth, as Ambassador from Great Britain, Aug. 24.	
——	Arrival of different Sovereigns at Vienna, to form a Congress, Sept. 26.	
——	Great disturbances in Spain: General Mina, at the head of four of his battalions, attempted to take Pampeluna; but was unsuccessful, and fled to France, Sept. 26.	
—	Charles XIII., King of Sweden, proclaimed King of Norway by the Diet at Christiana, Nov. 4.	

A. D.		*Illustrious Persons.*
1814	The first meeting of the Assembly of the *kingdom* of Hanover was opened by the Duke of Cambridge, Dec. 15.	
——	Treaty of Peace between England and America signed at Ghent, Dec. 24.	
——	Joanna Southcott died; and, with her, the hopes of the promised *Shiloh*, and all her other *prophecies*, Dec. 27.	
1815	The Prince Regent conferred the Order of the Bath (divided into three classes, differing in degrees of rank, viz. Knights Grand Crosses, Knights Commanders, and Knights Companions) on the Officers serving in the Peninsula, Jan. 2.	1815 The Duke of Dorset killed in Ireland, by a fall from his horse. — Saml. Whitbread, esq. M. P. *ob.* — The Duke of St. Alban's, *ob.* — The Duke of Norfolk, *ob.*
——	English Journals prohibited at Madrid, Jan. 24.	
——	The Duke of Wellington arrived at Vienna as Plenipotentiary at the Congress, Feb. 2.	
——	The Chancellor of the Exchequer abandoned the Property Tax, Feb. 20.	
——	Bonaparte sailed from Elba, bound to France, Feb. 26.	
——	Bonaparte landed, with 1000 men, at Cannes, between Frejus and Antibes; and was proclaimed a traitor by Lewis XVIII., Mar. 1.	
——	Riots in London, occasioned by the Corn Bill, Mar. 6.	
——	The following Treaties of Peace were laid before Parliament; viz. with Denmark, Spain, and the United States of America, Mar. 17.	
——	Bonaparte took possession of Paris, Mar. 21.	
——	Accounts arrived that the Prince of Orange had been proclaimed King of the Netherlands, Mar. 21.	
——	Marshal Ney formed a junction with Bonaparte, Mar. 22.	
——	The Abercrombie, East Indiaman, wrecked off Portland: crew lost. Mar. 26.	
——	An attempt made by Margaret Moore to steal the Crown from the Tower, Mar. 31.	
——	Bonaparte made an Overture of Peace to this Country, April 4.	
——	Ferdinand VII. visited the tribunal of the Inquisition, and occupied three hours in viewing the prisons, &c., April 14.	
——	The Emperor of Austria proclaimed himself also King of Lombardy and Venice, April 15.	

A. D.		*Illustrious Persons.*
1815	Bonaparte left Paris to meet the forces of the Allies, May 2.	
——	The three Legations restored to the Pope, May 29.	
——	MEMORABLE BATTLE OF WATERLOO. Bonaparte fled. The Duke of Wellington's horse was killed under him. The Duke of Brunswick (brother to the Princess of Wales) was mortally wounded, June 17, 18.	
——	The King of Sicily re-entered Naples, (the intrusive King, Murat, having fled,) after an absence of nine years, June 18.	
——	A brilliant and general illumination in England, on occasion of the battle of Waterloo, June 22.	
——	Bonaparte issued a Proclamation, calling on the French to save the honour and independence of the nation ! June 25.	
——	Paris capitulated with the Allied Powers, July 3.	
——	Lewis XVIII. re-entered Paris, July 8.	
——	Bonaparte went on board the Bellerophon, and gave himself up to Captain Maitland, July 16, and the next day sailed for England.	
——	The Bellerophon arrived in Torbay, July 24.	
——	Gazette account of the dethronement of the King of Candy, and the entire submission of Ceylon to the British, Aug. 1.	
——	Marshal Brune shot himself at Avignon, Aug. 2.	
——	Bonaparte removed from the Bellerophon to the Northumberland, commanded by Sir Geo. Cockburn, (who sailed the next day, bound to St. Helena,) Aug. 7.	
——	The Allied Sovereigns dined with Lewis XVIII. Sept. 13.	
——	Col. Labedoyere shot for treason, Sept. 19.	
——	Joachim Murat (intrusive king of Naples,) shot at Pizzo for rebellion, Oct. 13.	
——	Bonaparte landed at St. Helena, Oct. 13.	
——	Treaties of general peace signed at Paris, Nov. 20.	
——	An article from Hamburgh (Nov. 29.) contained the Convention of the Allied Powers, upon the distribution of 700,000,000 of francs, to be paid by France, in discharge of the expenses of the war ; of which 125,000,000 was the share of England.	
——	Marshal Ney was shot for high treason, Dec. 7.	

A. D.	
1816	Lavalette (condemned to death for high treason) escaped from the Conciergerie in his wife's apparel; she remaining in his place, Dec. 20.
—	The Emperor of Russia expelled the Jesuits from Petersburg and Moscow, Jan. 2.
—	Sir R. Wilson, Capt. Hutchinson, and Mr. Bruce, arrested at Paris, on a charge of having procured the escape of Lavalette, Jan. 13.
—	The shops and stalls in Paris for reading the English journals, ordered by the French government to be shut up, Feb. 2.
—	The House of Commons voted a Monument to commemorate the services rendered by the Navy, Feb. 5.
—	St. John's, Newfoundland, destroyed by fire, February 10.
—	An attempt to renew the Property Tax lost in the House of Commons by a majority of 37, Mar. 19.
—	The Property Tax expired, April 5.
—	Sir R. Wilson, Capt. Hutchinson, and Mr. Bruce, convicted, and sentenced to three months imprisonment, April 24.
—	Princess Charlotte of Wales married to Prince Leopold of Saxe Cobourg, at Carleton House, May 2.
—	Massacre of the Christians at Bona by 2000 Turks and Moors, May 23.
—	A superb statue erected in Bloomsbury Square to the memory of Charles James Fox, June 18.
—	Princess Mary married to the Duke of Gloucester, July 22.
—	Eruption of Mount Vesuvius, preceded by an earthquake, Aug. 7.
—	Lord Cochrane tried for breaking out of prison, Aug. 17.
—	Lord Exmouth's victory at Algiers; by which he abolished Christian Slavery, Aug. 27.
—	Belvoir Castle maliciously destroyed by fire, at a loss exceeding 120,000l., Oct. 25.
—	Duke of Cambridge appointed Governor General of Hanover, Nov. 2.
—	Riots in London; Mr. Platt shot in the shop of Mr. Beckwith, a gun-smith, Dec. 2.
	Riots at Sheffield, Dec. 3.

Illustrious Persons.

1816 Judge Heath, *ob.*
— The Duchess of St. Alban's, and her infant son the Duke, *ob.*
— Judge Le Blanc, *ob.*
— Rich. Brinsley Sheridan, *ob.*
— Mr. Tomkins, *the celebrated Penman, ob.*
— Frederick William I. King of Wirtemberg, *ob.*
— Admiral Sir Roger Curtis, *ob.*
— Earl Stanhope, *ob.*

Lord Cochrane released from imprisonment by a penny subscription, Dec. 7.

The Prince Regent went in state to open the Session of Parliament. Great tumult in St. James's Park; the Royal procession being insulted by the populace, and the window of the state-carriage broken, Jan. 28.

Watson, senior, Preston, Hooper, &c. arrested for high treason, Feb. 9.

New silver coinage issued by government, Feb. 13.

James Monroe, Esq. inaugurated President of the United States of America, March 4.

Habeas Corpus Act suspended, March 7.

Fortress of Hattrass, in the East Indies, captured, March.

Cashman, a discharged seaman, executed for breaking open Mr. Beckwith's shop on the 2d December, 1816, March 12.

The province of Pernambuco, in South America, declared itself independent of the crown of Brazil, April 5.

The Catholic claims again rejected by the House of Commons, by a majority of 24, May 9.

The Portuguese sovereignty re-established in Pernambuco, May 18.

Mr. Abbot, Speaker of the House of Commons, resigned that situation, May 30. Made Lord Colchester, May 31.

Conspiracy at Lisbon, headed by General Gomez Freire de Andrade, May.

Trial of Wooler, editor of the Black Dwarf, for two alleged libels on the ministers, in that publication. The jury returned a verdict of guilty; but three of them afterwards declaring their dissent, the verdict was set aside. On the second indictment the defendant was acquitted, June 5.

Watson, senior, Thistlewood, Preston, and Hooper, brought from the Tower to be tried for High Treason, June 9. Watson's trial lasted till the 16th; when the jury found him not guilty. The following day, the Attorney General declining to prosecute the others, they were acquitted of course.

Illustrious Persons.

1817 The Duke of Marlborough, *ob.*
— William Thomson, L L.D. *ob.*
— Charles Combe, M.D. F.R. and A.S.S. *ob.*
— Marshal Massena, Prince of Esling, *ob.*
— Cardinal Maury, *ob.*
— Werner, *mineralogist*, *ob.*
— George Ponsonby, *ob.*
— The Duke of Northumberland, ob.
— Madame de Staël Holstein, *ob.*
— Admiral Sir J. T. Duckworth, *ob.*
— J. P. Curran, *ob.*
— Kosciusko, the hero of Poland, *ob.*
— J. A. de Luc, F.R.S. *physician and philosopher*, *ob.*
— H. R. H. the Princess Charlotte of Wales, *ob.*

A. D.		*Illustrious Persons*
1817	The Waterloo Bridge was opened, with great parade, by the Prince Regent and the Dukes of York and Wellington, June 18.	
——	At Gloucester the thermometer stood, at noon, in the shade, at 103, June 21.	
——	Mr. Kemble took his leave of the stage in the character of Coriolanus, June 22.	
——	A proclamation issued ordering the new gold coin, called a Sovereign, to pass current at 20*s*. July 5.	
——	The Dey of Algiers assassinated, Sept.	
——	Trials for high treason at Derby, Oct. 16.	
——	Dreadful hurricane in the West Indies, Oct. 21.	
——	The Princess Charlotte of Wales and of Saxe Cobourg died in child-birth, having been delivered of a still-born child, Nov. 6.	

THE END.

THE TANJORE MAHARAJA SERFOJI'S SARASWATI MAHAL.

Printed by A. Strahan,
Printers-Street, London.